

*The* 60c  
Soviet  
Review

*Translations* IN SOCIAL ANALYSIS & CRITICISM,  
LITERATURE & THE ARTS, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

NOVEMBER 1961

CONFESSIONS OF A GENERATION  
*Youth Opinion Poll*

The Laws on Employment Transfers

Public Participation in Settling Labor Disputes

The Physician and Scientific Atheism

Death Defeated

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Letters from our readers. Replies from Soviet authors.

THE SOVIET REVIEW is planning a new department of East-West correspondence. Readers are invited to address letters to the Editor of THE SOVIET REVIEW, commenting on any article which appears in the journal. The Editor will forward letters of greatest general interest to the Soviet authors concerned and will publish the resulting correspondence. Letters should be under 500 words in length.

This new department offers an unprecedented opportunity to our readers to engage in direct discussion with Soviet writers in many fields. We look forward to an interesting and useful exchange of ideas.

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Next Month: Results of THE SOVIET REVIEW  
Readers' Questionnaire







# THE SOVIET REVIEW

*A Journal of Translations*

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THE PURPOSE OF THE SOVIET REVIEW is to provide readers with a significant cross-section of articles published in Soviet periodicals in the fields of literature and the arts, social analysis and criticism, and science and technology. THE SOVIET REVIEW makes these translations available for information and research, and the publication of an article implies neither approval nor disapproval of its contents.

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## Confessions of a Generation: Youth Opinion Poll

By V. V. Chikin and B. A. Grushin

The results of a poll conducted by the Institute of Public Opinion of the youth newspaper *Komsomolskaya Pravda* among readers between the ages of 15 and 30, revealing their attitudes toward themselves and their generation. Published in the issues of July 21 and 22, 1961 — slightly abridged.

THE EYES OF THE WORLD are upon them, sometimes troubled or guarded, questioning or delighted, at times envious — and always curious. What are they like, the young people of the mid-twentieth century, tomorrow's men and women, future masters of the earth?

In part this is the eternal problem of fathers and sons — the problem of generations succeeding one another, differing in so many ways as at times to deny one another. On the shoulders of each new generation rests a huge responsibility and often the course of history depends on how conscious of this the young people are. But it is a burden which their elders share: one disappointing child is not necessarily an indictment of its parents. But an entire generation gone wrong is the severest indictment of the society which fathered it. One way and another, the responsibility of today's youth for our tomorrows is tremendous — greater than it has ever been. Such is the nature of the epoch we live in.

Just how conscious are these young people of the complexity and magnitude of the problems facing us? How will they approach the historic mission which is their lot? Obviously there are no simple answers which would hold for all nations and national groupings. Not long ago the French writer Nadeau announced to

the world, "The twentieth century is the era of lost generations." We disagree. We offer in refutation the attitudes and actions and ideas of millions of young people living along the shores of the Vltava and the Hwang Ho, of the young bearded men of Cuba, the young Italian Communists who barred the fascists' road in Genoa, the Japanese students who unanimously hate militarism, and finally the sons of yesterday's black slaves who today are changing the face of Africa.

Yet it is easy to understand the fears underlying the very expression, "the lost generation." In Great Britain there are "the angry young men." Despairing over the hypocrisy and false values so characteristic of their society, they have come to doubt all the values of the heart and the mind. The beer cellars of Cologne and Munich are once again crowded with young Philistines applauding in alcoholic enthusiasm the neofascists whose torches are close to powder kegs. There is restlessness in Scandinavian countries, the parliamentarians and elders patently unable to influence the "raggars" — that young tribe devoid of ideals or goals who are intent on burning their lives out. The "beatniks" in the USA are another group desperately and helplessly protesting the abomination of atom psychosis.

In order to deal with evil one must understand its roots. The lawmakers and theoreticians of bourgeois society are deeply concerned. But they merely try to convince themselves as well as others that their young people's painful sickness stems from the epoch, that its causes know neither geographical nor social boundaries.

And now Soviet youth has spoken for itself.

On January 6, 1961 the Institute of Public Opinion of *Komsomolskaya Pravda* asked its readers to answer these questions:

1. What is your opinion of your generation; are you satisfied with its activities and the way it handles itself?
2. On what do you base your answer?
3. What do you feel are the most salient characteristics of Soviet youth? In what ways are they most clearly and sharply manifested?
4. Do you think our young people have any negative traits? If so, what are they?
5. What is your basis for saying so?
6. Which do you think is the more typical among your contemporaries — a goal and singlemindedness, or lack of purpose?

7. Do you personally have a goal in life?
8. What is this goal?
9. What must you do to reach it?
10. What have you already done along that line?
11. Do you believe you will attain your goal?
12. On what do you base your conviction?

We set a deadline of twenty days for the answers, and we were swamped with work for six months to come. Our mail is always heavy. But the response to our poll was without precedent. By deadline time we had received over 19,000 letters, nor was this the end. The first results, published on January 11 and January 26, brought a new flood of mail. Not all letters were in direct answer to our questions, it is true, but they were interesting in themselves—we published a sampling of these on January 24. Subsequently the older generation joined in the discussion, the editors having turned to them with a special questionnaire. Their answers, published on March 16 and April 28, provided material for another lively discussion.

All in all the Institute received over 21,500 reactions.

As far as we know, there was also considerable interest evinced in the Western press. Special features on the poll and the problems it raised appeared in the *London Observer* and the *Daily Telegraph*, in the *New York Times* (Sunday Magazine Section) and the *New York Herald Tribune*, in the Swiss *Tagesanzeiger* and the West German *Koelnische Rundschau*. Their attitude is summed up by the *Tagesanzeiger*: "In the Soviet Union there also exists the problem of the young generation; it has become a central theme of discussion in the Kremlin, on a level with the Seven-Year Plan and peaceful coexistence. . . ."

In similar manner other Western papers have substituted questionable conjectures for what to us is a serious and objective discussion, sometimes even juggling with facts. As early as January 27, for instance, the *New York Herald Tribune*, without any data to go on except the two dozen answers we had published to date, hastened to sum up the results. And three days after we first published the original questionnaire the *Daily Telegraph* announced that "the Russian youth paper has printed something that is really risky for a social order controlled by communists." Distort-

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\*All quotations are retranslated from the Russian—Editor.

ing the purpose of the poll, the Moscow correspondent of the Columbia Broadcasting System Marvin L. Kalb wrote that those who organized it "frankly stated" (where and when? — Ed.) that they were not "attempting to give an exact statistical analysis of the results," that "the purpose of the poll is something quite different, namely to stimulate official discussion and give sanction to criticism of nihilism," etc. The intent of such statements is obvious, especially when we consider that not one of the writers had access to any completed questionnaires, nor saw a single graph or other tabulated results.

Now these results have all been analyzed. They are complete, objective, and make it possible for us to speak about the actual face of the young generation of the USSR, of the way it thinks and the way it feels. We feel we are justified in saying this on the basis of two sets of facts.

First of all, participating in the poll were young people of all of our country's regions, without exception, and they represented all social groupings and professions, people who differed widely in character and outlook.

The fullness of the picture could not be put in doubt, not even by the Western commentators who had been worrying over whether or not individuals holding "extreme views" would participate. The British writer Edward Crankshaw, in discussing the questions, seemed to place special hope on the fact that we had not asked that the answers be signed. He remarked with evident relish that "the questions offer wide scope to nonconformists." He also voiced doubts as to whether "the *styliagi* [sharp-dressers somewhat analogous to American "zoot-suiters"] would feel the urge to take pen in hand," suggesting that without them, of course, the results would not be really accurate. Let us set his mind at rest — everyone participated, including the *styliagi* and other loafers who to our people seem merely spongers but whom certain Western ideologists label nonconformists or dissidents.

Secondly, the response and attitude of the young people were sincere and very earnest. In fact many people who had already sent in answers would write again, sending in changes and additional comments. To wit: "I have been mulling over what I said and I see I wasn't quite candid. I had written, 'I have already accomplished a certain something, matriculated at the university,

have had a few poems published, a step toward achieving my great goal of becoming a poet.' But the truth is I haven't yet had much to say — nothing really fresh and important; so I have really done very little toward what I hope to do." The letter was signed by Natasha Akhsakhalian, a student at Gorki University.

Not all of the 19,000 answers were valid. About a thousand were immediately disqualified because of the age requirement. Another 500 questionnaires neglected to indicate age or occupation or failed to give answers to the key questions — the first, sixth and seventh. Finally there were several dozen letters in verse, and poetry does not readily translate into the language of statistics.

The final number of valid questionnaires which the Institute proceeded to analyze was 17,446. Now about their authors:

### Biographical Material

Their biographical sketches were, by request, rather brief. But with the exception of a few who always had been wasteful of their time, the lives of the writers were surprisingly full. These twenty- and thirty-year-olds have already managed to see, experience and accomplish a great deal.

Born between 1931 and 1946, the oldest of them are thirty, the youngest fifteen. They have a great deal in common, as might be expected of brothers. On the other hand, the differences between them cannot be measured in years alone.

"To me and my age group maturity came early — too early. It hit us in June 1941 and ended forever the carefree happiness of childhood. It seems unbelievable for nine-year-olds to be no longer children, but that's how it was.

"By now my childhood friends have had time to make a mark for themselves. Their faces smile at me from the newspapers, I hear their voice over the microphone... One of my playmates in Krasnodar was Tolka, the terror of our orchards, the lover of other people's melon fields. Today he is Anatole Dorokhov, an Army officer. There were also three girls, inseparable imps with over-fertile imaginations. Masha, Vera and Tamara were going to do 'something extraordinary' that the world would hear about. So far none has accomplished anything world-shaking, but they are wonderfully useful and busy, all three of them fine mothers..."

Thus writes 26-year-old Arkady Stepanov, construction worker



from Prokopievsk. The letter is written in pencil, during a lunch break, in the name of a dozen close friends, all of whom had been forced early to start coping with adult problems. They had grown up before their time, learning to stand on their own two feet, little men often called upon to become heads of households when they should have been free to play. Later it was largely on their shoulders that fell the difficulties of post-war rebuilding of the national economy.

The contemporaries of I. Kushnir, 22-year-old technician from Stepanavan, were tiny children during the war years. "When human blood was flowing in rivers, when our fathers were beating back the enemy, many of us with naive glee collected empty cartridge cases. We hadn't the slightest conception of the hell of war around us." Later these youngsters developed along routine lines—they went to grade school, to technical school. In 1956 they were the fifteen- to nineteen-year-olds. Not all of them were able to grasp the essence and meaning of the Party discussions on the cult of the individual and its aftermath.

Finally there is the very youngest group, those still in school or in technical or trade institutions. Their childhood has been care-free. Their one serious problem is to decide what they want to become. The current changes in the system of Soviet schooling, the stepping up of work training, applies chiefly to them.

### Where Do They Come From?

The breakdown of their places of residence can only be made in terms of general groupings. Thus 1,214 are from Moscow; 2,891 others come from 24 of the largest cities, each with a population of over 500,000; 11,408 represent hundreds of smaller towns, workers' settlements and collectives, railroad stops; 1,933 come from the countryside.

We see here on the one hand the personality formed under the influence of the large industrial center with its broad scope, heightened rhythm and level of culture; and on the other the changing face of the so-called far places with the romantic appeal of new building programs, of exploration, often with serious lack of creature comforts; and finally we see the special character of modern farm and country life, complete with the technical and social transformation involved.



### Their Social Status

Geologist V. Plavinsky of Brest Region suggests that we consider his letter "a questionnaire filled in not according to form" and speaks of his contemporaries as writing their answers thus:

"Not with pens but with hydrants  
With the mighty hands of iron shafts  
With combines on soil once virgin  
With dams on the roaring Angara . . .  
Not by the light of desk lamps  
Nor always in springtime days  
But under tarpaulin roofs  
During wild blizzards."

He happens to be right. If his generation may be said to have one overall social classification, that classification is *builders of a new life*. Some 5,518 workers participated in the poll, as well as 797 engineers, 601 kolkhozniks, 3,186 office workers, 95 young artists, writers, painters — that is to say, members of the free professions.

It is becoming more and more difficult to determine the social status of an individual. To the discomfort of sociologists, the process of eradication of class distinctions going on apace in our country produces new types: we have the engineer-worker, the kolkhoznik-mechanic, the worker-student. But the figures quoted above fail fully to reflect occupational variations from yet another angle. The Institute received 4,088 letters from officers and soldiers currently serving in the Army. If we bear in mind that professional Army men are only a fraction of this group — only 57 had higher Army education — it becomes clear that the vast majority are again workers in industry and on farms, temporarily in military service.

In Plavinsky's age group there are certain lacunae: 119 turned out to be unemployed. Of these some, of course, are young mothers, others are incapacitated by illness or are temporarily out of work for a variety of valid reasons. But there are also those whose motto is: "Not to work, but to go on eating."

"Idleness," was what 22-year-old I. K. from Semipalatinsk wrote under "Type of Employment." His goal in life is "to marry well, having cleverly hoodwinked the daughter and her well-heeled parents."

Certain Western "specialists" on the order of G. S. of *Libre*

*Belgique* are making a great deal of such youths, writing about what they call "the onslaught of parasitic elements in the USSR." But how many such drones are there in reality? Among the participants in our poll they account for less than 0.2 per cent.

### **Their Education**

Despite the problems of the war and post-war years theirs is the best-educated generation in all of Russia's history. This is not news, but the poll proves it with figures: out of 5,518 workers, 3,621 have completed secondary school; out of 601 kolkhozniks, 279, and 2,283 out of 3,186 other employees; 1,256 young people wrote their answers in school and 1,786 students in the study halls of various institutes.

The whole generation is wedded to its textbooks. The engineer-mechanic Boris O. of Leningrad continues his studies because he dreams of the day when "there shall be no more manual labor for the stonemason, the man working with a spade, the loader." Also studying are the worker Arkady Stepanov, now in his second year at the correspondence school of the Kharkhov Engineering Institute, and his friends. They are trying to catch up on time lost because of the war. "When it comes to learning more, nothing frightens us or gets in our way. At 11 and 12 at night the people from Prokopievsk don't think of bed. Singly and in groups they walk through the streets, and when you really look at them you notice that none is over 30. Who are these people? Workers on their way home from night school, from technical college, from the University of Culture. I don't have any statistics on the number of those enrolled, but I don't put much stock in figures anyway. It wouldn't be possible to count all those among us who are studying."

### **Their Work Record**

Accomplishment is gauged not merely by the number of work days to a man's credit but also by results. This is especially applicable to the generation as a whole.

There seems to be no question that during the past ten years there hasn't been a single project undertaken in our land, not a single meaningful beginning in which the youth did not play an important, often decisive part.

There was no specific question in our questionnaire to indicate what they had already accomplished. But from the answers to Question 2 there emerges a picture we can only admire. Their work has been impressive. But most important is the emphasis in one answer out of every four on their practical participation in the people's struggle for communism.

The biographical material indicates two historical landmarks, two important stages in the generation's development and maturity: the work in the virgin lands and communist construction under the Seven-Year Plan. An indication of how they themselves see and understand the problem is that 4,730 young men and women have spontaneously spoken of them as the two outstanding features in the work record of their generation.

"I want to tell you about the people in my town in the Urals, in the North Sverdlovsk Region — about the future city Kachkhanar and its builders," writes Ayrika Moskalenko, "a plain average working girl" who started working in 1958 after graduating from secondary school. "Three years ago this was impassable *taiga* country. But the Komsomols came, and today we have the framework of the iron works that will make the region rich. Housing is mushrooming. Soon the small settlement will have grown into a real city built by the hands of my contemporaries. There are so many of them! Recently-discharged soldiers, young men from the central cities. They come on Komsomol passes, gay, eager, and whatever they do, they do with fire. After work they dance and they ice skate. They live by dreams. But not by daydreams. What they start out to do may be considered done."

Several years ago a new phrase was coined — *the virgin soil man*. According to technician H. Stupin this implies "a man of granite whose will and spirit are unbreakable. His work was so terribly difficult that the eyes were afraid. But the hands did not stop." Some of those who were unable to join in this particular battle still haven't stopped regretting it. "My well-meaning family wouldn't let me go," writes Tamara Gordeyeva of Tashkent. "Now I wish I hadn't listened to them..."

Yuri Gagarin belongs to this generation, the first to look down on our planet from among the stars. He is 27 and his background is no different than that of millions of other average Soviet boys. Hundreds of letters prove this.

There is still another name for them, *the scouts of the future*. This is what they are being called for their questing and their affirmation of new ways of life. The communist work teams, the *udarniks* [shock workers] are those who spark the initiative of a large segment of young workers whose daily achievements are reflected in 4,427 answers.

"The impossible, the gigantic—that is what my generation is building with its hands," is the way A. Pavlenko, a carpenter from Bratska, sums it up. Work in the *taiga* has made men and women of the boys and girls who have gone there. And now back to 19-year-old Ayrika, the construction worker on the mountain iron works who only recently finished school. "It has always been my dream to be a teacher. I am only in the second term of the correspondence department of the Institute of Pedagogy, but in my mind's eye I can see the youngsters I shall someday teach. I see myself walking into a classroom for the first time, saying, "Children, I am here to teach you to read, write, draw. I also mean to teach you to have dreams of your own..."

#### Are They Pleased with Themselves?

To Arkady Stepanov and his friends, who are giving all their strength and skills to building a new life and who find their chief source of joy in their work, there is no question as to what the answer is. "There will be legends told about our generation, there will be songs sung about it."

There is also no question about it for the parasite from Semipalatinsk who, try as he may, cannot fit into the procrustean bed of his own ideas and those of Stepanov, which he labels "false enthusiasm."

But what is the overall answer? The figures leave no room for doubt: 14,555 of those polled—83% of the total—state categorically that they do like their own contemporaries and feel pleased with their accomplishments.

But theirs is not merely self-satisfaction. They are well aware of the complexity and many-sidedness of our discussion. These are the words of 23-year-old D. Slavin from the Donbas, "We are not in a blue haze of blind admiration." He himself has had occasion "to be saddened by Philistinism, to have met hooliganism face to face and the empty-headed advocates of undisciplined

individualism, indulged in on papa's money." If the young seem to be pleased with their own generation, it is not because they cannot see the spots on the sun but because they see beyond the spot to the sun itself.

"Of course I am in love with my own times, my own generation," writes Emma Razumeyeva of Minsk. "Here are new relationships between people, the new man of a communist tomorrow is being born.... The outstanding characteristic of my contemporaries is love of work. I remember how the Komsomols of Polesye decided to bring under cultivation thousands of hectares of swampland. On Sundays and during their free hours they would go into the marshlands and work waist-deep in water... Six month later a motion picture company came here on location to make a film about the reclamation of the marshes. They had to shoot the early sequences in the studio, and it was the fields of ripe grain that were photographed from nature.

"Still, with all our great purpose, we have serious faults too. There are among us persons without true enthusiasm, without a sense of involvement. Our fathers, those early Komsomol romantics, sometimes had to subsist on potatoes baked in an open fire, but some of our people prefer them French-fried in a restaurant. I would like to see more romanticism among us!"

### The Skeptics and Irreconcilables

A specially careful study was made of the negative and on-the-fence answers to the first question. There were 960 *yes-and-no* answers, or 5.5 per cent. There were 1,931 *no's*, 11.1 per cent of the total.

Not all of these represent pure skepticism. Some of those polled said that while they did admire their generation's achievements they placed more emphasis on the negative aspects. What mainly sets them apart from the majority is not so much their evaluation of the good and the bad but their attitude toward the weaknesses. "If I were a historian writing in the year 2000," says student V. Valerii, "I would probably answer *yes* and leave it at that. But from the vantage point of today I am not yet willing to view life as a whole..." He feels that the very presence of negative qualities makes it impossible for him to be unequivocally proud of his generation.

I. Kushnir accuses his contemporaries of too much calm self-satisfaction. "There is still so much to fight against! Why do some of us drink, for instance? Out of habit, misery, joy? All these are mere labels. They do not become us and we had better not use them to justify ourselves." He adds that it is often the parents who introduce their youngsters to alcohol before these youngsters quite know how to handle it. "No, we should rather set our sights on goals in tune with our epoch, in tune with sputniks!"

There are some like 23-year-old Proskurina of the Primorsk Region, who writes that "she was born to be an officer's wife." Her dream is to marry a career Army officer, enjoy herself and live without working: "after all, work kills even horses." Unfortunately she is not alone. A Moscow girl echoes her, though she has the grace to add, "I know my answer will be like a white crow among the black!"

There are also some who call themselves skeptics, those whose doubts are the result of personal disappointments, failures, mistakes. Sometimes the reason is a job from which they derive no satisfaction or an unhappy personal life; sometimes it is a reflection of upheavals dating back to the days of the cult of personality. We do not presume to sit in judgment on such persons. We merely feel sorry for them — sorry that they haven't been able to escape the narrow confines of personal misfortune and disillusionment, to shake off the gloom.

### Characterization

As they write about themselves the young people keep referring to their image of their elders. The comparison has special meaning. The communists — knights of the Revolution, heroes of the early Five-Year Plans and of the Patriotic War — are their models.

The answers fall into patterns. Some say, "We cannot presume to compare ourselves with the Komsomols of the Twenties — we have been born and raised in too much of a hothouse atmosphere. ..." Others cry, "Our generation is as good as theirs!" On the whole, the most adult ones — those who were forced to grow up fast by what they had to face — approach the problem on another level entirely. They stress that the extent to which this generation carries on and deepens the revolutionary heritage of their fathers is the extent to which it sets and maintains its own new traditions.

### The Romanticism of the Nineteen-Sixties

Each new Soviet generation seems to grow up with the same recurrent feeling: "Hasn't it been born too late for taking part in great events?" The Komsomols of the Thirties envied the sailors on the *Aurora*. Those of the Fifties wished they'd had a chance to be heroes. "How often," writes Natasha Denisiuk, speaking for many eighteen-year-olds, "have we cried, 'If only we'd been born thirty, forty years earlier! Wasn't that a time...'" But her final conclusion shows signs of maturity. "But no, this too is a wonderful time! And there is no less that needs doing..." Indeed each stage of the building of communism brought to the fore its own specific problems which demanded new solutions, new forms. But always there was one constant factor without which success would have been unthinkable — selfless devotion in the struggle for ideals, a sense of social responsibility, the revolutionary romanticism of those who were changing the world.

These characteristics which our fathers had are mirrored today in the youth of the Sixties, as witness the words of Nikolai Artamonov, Stalingrad concrete worker:

"The Revolution continues. In our everyday life great changes are taking place in the character of the people; millions today reject once and for all whatever is stale and false, and establish and affirm what is fine. To each era its own men. Ours is a time of heroes and so we have them — they are right here among us. Our work may be ordinary, it may even seem insignificant because what we do is so plain, so easy to understand. But this makes it no less worth-while and precious. We must all learn to understand this, the sooner the better. For it is impossible to do anything big without being aware of its bigness. I often have the urge to cry out, 'People, the blast furnaces you have built are a great thing, the earth you have plowed is a feat, the houses you have raised are a victory. You must love what you have created, and you will be helped in times of self-doubt, you will become more single-minded.'

"Please do not think I am a Don Quixote. I am an ordinary working man. As a child I wanted to be a painter, later on a poet. Today I merely want to be of use to my country.... Sometimes I have bad moments, especially when I see some people



equate happiness with the pocketbook. I then ask myself why I, who enjoy the good things of life as much as the next person, choose to be an ordinary worker. Then I realize it is because I have learned to measure my purpose not by minor satisfactions but by the joy I derive from being useful. If our country needs concrete workers, I work in concrete; if it needs ditch diggers I dig ditches. And I do this not so that people might praise me, but simply because I could not do otherwise. This is how I find happiness. And it will always be this way with me. My principles as a citizen, my conscience as a worker, the sacred meaning to me of communist ideals are a guarantee of this."

Artamonov has managed to communicate in words the full revolutionary romanticism of the 1960's. He has found expression for his own inspired thoughts which echo the thoughts of millions of others like him who, of course, are unable to express themselves as clearly and articulately as he.

There are certain objective criteria by which to gauge devotion to an idea. The inner fortitude, the readiness to cope with difficulties, no matter how formidable, selflessness bordering on sacrifice, these are described by 24-year-old Georgii Varavva from Minsk. "My generation," he writes, "has always been the one to respond first to the Party's needs. They are the ones who froze in the steppes but did not give up. They fought the elements on the Angara. They have stood fast at the most demanding, responsible outposts. . . . I myself was one of that large Komsomol collective whose strength reclaimed the vast virgin lands. It was there, in fact, that I learned fully to understand the caliber of my own contemporaries, learned to appreciate them."

The virgin land reclaimed, the gigantic GES [hydroelectric stations], the Donbas, the building up of Siberia — this is the fruit of the mass heroism of our youth, and it is no less than what their fathers accomplished. Their generous expenditures of energy, the endless difficulties they were called on to overcome, the importance of the goals attained — all this gives them the right to consider themselves true romantics.

The word *enthusiasm* is in many questionnaires answered inseparably bracketed with the word *work*. On the basis of this some Western journalists have come up with the most unexpected conclusions. With obvious relish Marvin L. Kalb writes, "Among the



participants there appeared to be no fiery revolutionaries preaching Marxism-Leninism. None called for participation in a war of national liberation in Laos, for a revolt in Wall Street. The average Russian youth and girl don't sound like world-shakers."

Of course there is no mention in the poll of a "revolt in Wall Street." The young people understand the theory of Marxism-Leninism well enough to know that in order for the new order to establish itself in Wall Street they must build communism in the USSR. On the other hand they have no doubts whatever as to the future of mankind.

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#### THEIR TEN SALIENT CHARACTERISTICS

(from the answers polled)

*Patriotism, love of country*

*Devotion to the Party, moral strength*

*Moral traits: willpower, courage, honesty, steadfastness, heroism*

*A thirst for knowledge*

*Industriousness*

*Faith in communism*

*Collectivism*

*Participation in activities*

*A feeling for the new*

*Aspiration toward peace*

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Summary which appeared in *Komsomolskaya Pravda*

#### To Be a Small Sun

It has often been said that patriotism only grips the broad masses at times of great stress, when the motherland is threatened or there is something to celebrate. But Soviet youth is patriotic every day of the week. Twenty-year-old Aleksander Nuzhdov of the Volga Region wrote that he "came to know life with all its difficulties earlier than most others." He includes a letter from a friend in his own answer: "I believe we shall create a life that will be so good our children will rejoice and wonder at what we did. Why do I say this? Because I love my country, because my people are the first in the world to build socialism, because I believe in them." Aleksander considers love of country the outstanding single

trait of his generation. The largest number of all those who wrote in — 5,592, or almost a third of the total — share his view.

One thousand answers have references to the four courageous men who spent 49 days last year battling the Arctic seas. Apparently the expedition left a deep impression not only on the minds of the young people but also in their hearts. Here a sense of pride in their contemporaries is closely tied in with the question, "Would I too be capable of such strength?" Most of them believe they would. Willpower, dependability, manliness and courage, honesty and comradeship — these are the moral qualities which, together with Soviet patriotism and devotion to the Party, are according to over 5,000 answers characteristic of the young generation.

Particular stress is also given collectivism, to a sense of closeness with others in their group, inter-dependence and moral support freely given and accepted. All these traits are natural to them and typical of them. The answers give us many touching and impressive stories that testify to the new relationships among the people today. Conversely, the opposites of all these traits appear to be doomed. Of all the answers only 28 emphasized nationalism, 76 spoke of a drive to "burn themselves up," 152 mentioned religiosity, 188 nihilism, 330 self-interest.

The seeds of a new morality sown by the Revolution, which the Party promised would transform the soul of man, are today yielding rich fruit. What once were the traits of heroes of the Revolution today have become the inherent traits of millions. More than that, the young people possessing them already today actively engage in educating their friends, their younger brothers and sisters. They want to help instill the best in as many others as possible. This is the real explanation of their constantly recurring expression of "a wish to participate in developing the new man." This is true of many who are not professionally teachers.

"All my life," 22-year-old Natalya from Lyuberets confides, "I have only wanted to be a good human being. I would like to believe that my being alive will help make things better, warmer, brighter for others. I would like, if I may put it that way, to be a kind of very small sun for those around me. I have always read a great deal and studied music, and always I tried to share my experiences with those around me. I wanted to kindle their love of

beauty, help orient others toward honesty, nobility of purpose, decency. In my studies and in my work I've always tried to be of some little use to others."

### To Wait for Change or Work to Make It Happen?

Change and innovation are second nature to the young. Free of conservatism, of habits that are formed with the years, they are impatient to have their say and make their mark. Yet even in this the youth of today are different from what they were as recently as ten years ago.

Their enthusiasm and romanticism do not preclude a sober, down-to-earth attitude toward objective reality. To quote one of their own number, they possess "normal eyesight capable of seeing all colors, distinguishing all nuances." To this boy loving his country doesn't mean "that there are among us no people of ill will, no problems, no disappointments and doubts." Moreover, "the poets and writers who refuse to admit this, whose civic pride has melted into generalizations, do a disservice to the youth."

The young people's realism is the result first and foremost of the objective conditions prevailing around them. Having established Leninist norms for the Party and the nation, the Central Committee of the CPSU has set its course directly toward eradicating weaknesses in the economy and also in organizational and educational work among the masses. The January Plenum of the Committee has called the Soviet people, including the Komsomol youth, to active struggle against all weaknesses and imperfections. The appeal met with a wide response among the young.

There is a famous philosophical axiom, "Change is inevitable." This is true insofar as in its struggle with the old new forms overcome obstacles and inevitably win in the end. But the axiom may also be vulgarized, taken to mean that change will come of its own accord, that there is no need to prepare the way by positive and sometimes difficult struggle against what is old. Recently certain philosophers have tended to favor this interpretation.

Today the Party rejects such duality. Profoundly dialectical in its approach, it has without amending the central thesis forcefully emphasized that *change must be fought for and won*. This has freed the initiative of all of us, but of the young in particular.

The major weapon in this struggle is criticism.

Among our youth we sometimes meet mere faultfinders — a phenomenon by no means peculiar to them alone — but these are not too numerous, for their comrades often manage to discourage them and even when they do find a sympathetic ear, the reason is generally that unwise administrators have tried to deal with them by unwise methods.

Western ideologists, hostile to the Soviet Union, pay special attention to these nihilists and have great hopes for them. But even they know that such individuals may be counted on the fingers of their hands. Thus the writer Sherman, in his "New Winds Blow in Russia — the Doubting Intellectuals," published in the *London Observer*, in characterizing the doubters, says that "they may be found in the bar of the Hotel Sovetskaya, where they spend most of their time sipping cocktails." (For the readers' information the bar has about a dozen seats!) But on the average the Soviet youth consider the weapon of criticism a necessary working tool.

An urge for change, for new forms, the support of change through active struggle — these are traits which a thousand answers underscore as outstanding. Many of those who wrote in even equate them with their own life goals.

Because it appreciates the true strength of the young, its bright potential, the Party today insistently poses the question of giving young people positions of leadership in relation to work and also of increasing their role in the affairs of the nation.

#### **Singlemindedness or Lack of Purpose?**

One of the first five questionnaires we published was from Leningrad architect Tatyana Vlasova. Her answer to the sixth question was, "The second part of it might have been unasked — it is for the heroes of a *Remarque* novel." She was not alone in her attitude. For 85.3% the very idea of absence of direction among their contemporaries seems an absurdity.

Yet many of the answers were less clear-cut. "Certainly our youth has a positive orientation," writes Rimma K., a 22-year-old student from Maikop and a participant in the virgin soil epic, "but I disagree with Vlasova. We still have among us many *Remarque*-like characters."

Actually the question of goals and direction was raised twice. The sixth question dealt with the young people's opinions. The

seventh — on personal goals — was meant to deal with the goals themselves. The two are not synonymous. Expressions of opinion about others are significant inasmuch as they reflect the individual's relationship to his environment, his satisfaction or dissatisfaction with those close to him. At the same time such opinions may not be accurate. On the other hand a person honest with himself generally knows pretty well whether or not he has a firm goal himself.

The answers to the seventh question are impressive: 16,874 of them, or 96.7%, are in the affirmative. It becomes clear that purposefulness and active participation in the process of living are typical of this generation. Here is a key to understanding the young people as a whole.

Only 3.3% of the total stated they had no goals and purpose. In another section we shall consider the disillusioned ones, those who according to their own admission have lost or have been unable to find their place in the world. But it would be a mistake to assume that all these 3.3% answers are negative. Half of them, schoolchildren in the main, simply wrote, "I don't know yet." Many older boys and girls also say their goals are still undetermined because their minds are not wholly made up.

"I really would like to be either a journalist or a diplomat, but I am not at all sure I can be either; therefore I plan to enter technical school to make sure I have a skill. Then, if I don't get to be what I want, I shall be a good construction worker — that too is an interesting occupation. You may wonder how it is possible to have such widely different aims. But you see, all three are necessary specialties — all three are means toward the same end, which is to enrich and improve the life, the future of our people." This comes from a nineteen-year-old typist from Zaporozhye. Whether or not we agree with her idea of what constitutes the most interesting professions of all, there is no reason to be concerned with her "lack of purpose." Like so many of her age group who are yet to find themselves, this girl is on the right track.

The traits we have already mentioned show us our youth as a generation of convinced optimists. The poll makes a clear evaluation of this possible. These boys and girls have written not only about their hopes and purpose, but about their certainty of achieving what they set out to do. As a rule they are already familiar

with many difficulties, they have learned that nothing in life is handed to anyone on a silver platter. And still they say, "We know we shall succeed!"

A young Moscow engineer who wishes to "dedicate his life to work, family and friends" dreams of doing something that would make life easier for others and has no doubt whatsoever that this is exactly how it will be. He adds, "There is after all no such thing as 'I cannot.' There is only 'I will' or 'I won't.' Perhaps this sounds presumptuous, yet the words have real meaning." This man is 24 years old. In 1957 he all but lost his faith in people—he was attacked in the street and knifed by hooligans...

Mogilev student Svetlana P. has similar ideas. "I want to be a doctor. I want to help people, so that they suffer as little as possible, live as long as possible. I know I can do it. In our country the generation now growing up is given every consideration, all professions are open to us. We need only establish a goal and be determined to achieve it. Of course not everything is possible all at once. But if I don't get into medical school this coming year I'll get there a year later. In the meantime I shall not stay home, you may be sure. I shall study and work and get what I want."

These two answers are representative of 13,765 others—78.9% of the total breathe optimism; the writers are in love with life. The remaining 3,500—those who don't know, who aren't sure—are not all pessimists either. In many cases their uncertainty is in direct relation to the kind of goals they have set for themselves. Thus young people hoping to become cosmonauts, artists, writers, sometimes lack the necessary qualifications for making their dreams come true, and often they realize this themselves.

Hundreds of those polled speak of peace as one of the most important preconditions for making their hopes a reality. A typical example is a 22-year-old kolkhoznik, P. Malik, from Novoselidovo Village of the Stalin Region. He writes that he is convinced he will succeed in whatever he plans, then adds, "If there is peace there will be everything." In other words, the answers show not a trace of the fears which hang over their opposite numbers in the West. On the contrary, they clearly see that the question of keeping the peace is in their hands and they are ready to guard it by all means possible....

### The 'Lost Generation' — Its Beginning and Its End

What precisely is the significance of what Western ideologists have called "problem youth" and "the lost generation"?

"I have grown too great  
For a small love,  
I have grown too small  
For a great love,  
I have grown too weary  
Not to close my eyes,  
I am too fearful  
To sleep."

This is how the lostness is expressed by the West German poet Eric Fried. Translating into the language of sociology, a French political economist offers a more stark formulation: "A widespread sense of despair and disillusion, a lack of faith in the future and in themselves — the crisis of our youth is a serious phenomenon."

We have said elsewhere that it is inaccurate to speak about a world-wide crisis among the youth. Attempts to "extend" this "crisis" to include Soviet youth are in fact laughable. Edward Crankshaw, again in the *Observer*, hastened to announce that our young men and women would "weave a clear story of crumbling hopes" when answering the second part of our questionnaire. We now see how accurate were his predictions.

It is not the era, not the twentieth century nor yet the atomic bomb in itself that has given rise to the ranks of the angry and the defrauded young men. The beat generation begins and ends with imperialism, with contemporary bourgeois society. Many in the West are aware of this — not merely the critics of imperialism but its champions. "Neither the policies of Adenauer nor of the USA are capable of winning the enthusiasm or even the interest of the younger generation," writes William S. Schlamm, for many years an editor of *Fortune*, in his book *The Limits of Miracle*. "And if the youth are not given a sense of responsibility and involvement in causes which demand wholehearted dedication, they will inevitably grow up wild and go to pieces. Without this, the West cannot survive."

The optimism of Soviet youth bears the bright imprint of its origins. Their sense of purpose is a direct reflection of our socialist society, their confidence in the future, the confidence of a whole



people. It stems from the communist ideal and from day-to-day work to achieve that ideal. The poll shows this very clearly. It testifies to the conviction that the work initiated by the fathers — the building of communism — will soon be completed by the sons.

*(To be concluded in the December issue of THE SOVIET REVIEW)*



# The Laws on Employment Transfers

By B. Bazarbayev

An analysis of legal provisions for protecting employees' rights when transferring to other jobs, as well as proposals for changes in the law. *Sovetskoye Gosudarstvo i Pravo (Soviet State and Law)*, 1961, No. 2.

AS ESTABLISHED by Soviet law, the rules for an employee's transfer to another enterprise or locality contain a number of guarantees to insure protection of his rights. Two of the legal principles involved are of cardinal importance: a) an employee cannot be transferred without his consent; b) an employee's specialty and qualifications must be taken into account when he is transferred. Let us consider both these points.

1. *An employee's consent is a necessary condition for his transfer.* No general rule to this effect has been recorded to serve as a universal standard. The rule has, however, been set down in legal procedure covering specific kinds of transfer. According to Article 36 of the Labor Code of the RSFSR the management of an enterprise or institution cannot insist on an employee performing work which has no bearing on the occupation in which he has been employed. This implies that no transfer to another kind of work is possible unless agreement with the employee has been reached. The same rule is stated even more emphatically in a decision of the USSR People's Commissariat of Labor of April 10, 1930: "Within the same enterprise or office no transfer of an employee to another kind of permanent work not specified in the labor contract — i.e., work the employee did not undertake to do when hired — is permitted unless proper agreement with the employee has been reached." With respect to transfer from one enterprise to another or from

one locality to another, Article 37 of the Labor Code also expressly states that no transfer without the employee's consent is permissible.

In legal literature there have been proposals for incorporating this principle into general standard labor procedure in the All-Union Fundamentals of Labor Legislation. (See E. Astrakhan, S. Karinsky and A. Stavtseva, *The Role of Soviet Labor Legislation in Plan-Governed Supply of the National Economy with Manpower*, Gosiurizdat, Moscow, 1955, p. 140.) These proposals deserve proper consideration.

The employee's consent to a transfer may be obtained either in written form or orally, the former being preferable. The law does not prescribe any obligatory form for the expression of his agreement to the proposed transfer; it is merely required that such agreement be expressed without ambiguity. In practice it is often necessary to decide whether the employee who has been working in his new capacity following the management's decision may be regarded as having in fact given his consent.

In one of its rulings the Legal Collegium for Civil Cases of the Supreme Court of the RSFSR pointed out that in case an employee objects to having been transferred to another permanent occupation and a relevant complaint against the management's decision has been lodged in due time, the fact that he is already working in his new capacity cannot be construed as implying his consent to the transfer. This ruling seems to be quite proper, though the "due time" reservation in regard to lodging the complaint is not sufficiently specific. Exactly what is meant by "due time"? In the current Statute for Considering Labor Disputes there is no time limit set for lodging complaints against management decisions on transfers. This point needs to be made more specific.

In legal practice there is also another approach to this problem: the fact that an employee began working in his new capacity is construed as implying consent to the transfer. In this context a case in point is that of S. A. Machekhina, heard as cassation proceedings in the Alma-Ata Regional Court.

S. A. Machekhina had worked as laboratory assistant at the Infectious Disease Department of the Kazakh Sanitary-Epidemiological Station. On June 18, 1957 management discharged her on grounds of duplication of work and reassigned her as assistant epidemiologist in the same department. After working six months

in her new capacity Machekhina was again transferred, by a decision of September 17, 1957, to a new job, this time laboratory assistant at another laboratory. Machekhina referred her case to the proper agency dealing with labor disputes, requesting to be restored to her initial post since she had not given her consent to either of the transfers. The Court of the 1st Section of Frunze District of Alma-Ata heard the case — after the Labor Dispute Commission and the local trade union committee had found her claim justifiable — and reinstated her as laboratory assistant at the Infectious Disease Department. Reversing the court decision, the Legal Collegium for Civil Cases of the Alma-Ata Regional Court pointed out, among other reasons for its action, that "Machekhina has worked as assistant epidemiologist for six months." From this fact the Collegium concluded that "the plaintiff has consented to the transfer." On rehearing the case, the Court of the 2nd Section of Frunze District of Alma-Ata again reinstated Machekhina to her initial work. This time the Legal Collegium concurred.

The employee's consent to transfer to another permanent job can be given either by his acceptance of a management proposal to that effect or by his own request for transfer. The first procedure does not usually cause misunderstanding in practice: the employee either adds his signature to management's transfer decision or expresses his consent orally. It is sometimes more difficult to establish the fact of his consent when he is being transferred at his own request. The following case is characteristic:

An employee of the Kazakh Railway Board requested transfer to work at his own specialty in the Aryss Department. He stated that his request could be acted on at any time — i.e., whenever management was able to do so, either in case of a vacancy or if a new staff schedule is introduced. At the end of two months management issued a transfer decision; but in the meantime the employee had changed his mind and refused to be transferred. Management termed his action a violation of labor discipline and dismissed him on those grounds.

It seems to us that this decision was unjustifiable. In insisting on obtaining an employee's consent to transfer, the legislator takes into account his personal interests. Therefore his agreement should be secured directly at the time when the transfer is to take place, no matter on whose initiative it is being done.

This is the view maintained by the courts in deciding transfer disputes. Let us cite the following case by way of illustration: N. V. Kovalenko worked as senior budget inspector for the Tulkubas District Finance Department. On August 29, 1957 she requested the head of the South Kazakhstan Regional Finance Department to transfer her to lighter work for reasons of health and family considerations. In his decision of October 28, 1957, or two months after her request had been filed, the head of the Regional Finance Department did transfer her to work as budget inspector at the District Finance Department. Since her consent was not asked at the actual time the transfer decision was issued, and since the circumstances of her life had changed in the two intervening months, Kovalenko brought legal action to be reinstated to her former position. The court decided in her favor.

When an employee is transferred at his own request, management may give him only the job indicated in the request. If he is transferred to work in an occupation other than that indicated, the transfer should be regarded as effected without his consent. Court decisions also concur in this viewpoint. The Koluzhenkov case may serve as an illustration. The plaintiff, a cutter at the industrial combine of the Alma-Ata Regional Union of Consumer Cooperatives, requested transfer to work as senior foreman with a pay rate of 740 rubles a month. On October 21, 1957 he was transferred to work as checker-foreman at 600 rubles a month. Considering his transfer illegal, Koluzhenkov brought suit to be reinstated to his former capacity. The decision was in the plaintiff's favor.

In accordance with legislation now in force, employees to be dismissed on grounds of duplication (overstaffing) or unsuitability for the work they are doing may be transferred by management to other kinds of work within the same enterprise or office. But here again the consent of the transferee is necessary.

In practice, however, there are cases of employees dismissed on the above grounds and transferred without their consent. M. D. Temova worked as vivarium laboratory assistant at the Institute of Physiology of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh Republic. On April 10, 1958 management transferred her to work as a vivarium technician, claiming that she had not performed her former duties properly. The Court of the 3rd Section of Frunze District of Alma-Ata, to which she had referred the case, did not reinstate her.

But the Legal Collegium for Civil Cases of the Alma-Ata Regional Court voided this decision on grounds of improper investigation and ordered another hearing. The Collegium pointed out that the transfer had been illegal since the plaintiff's consent had not been obtained. The Court of the 4th Section of Frunze District reconsidered the case but did not uphold the plaintiff's claim. This time the Legal Collegium of the Regional Court concurred in the court decision on the grounds of overstaffing. The attitude of the Collegium was expressed in its ruling on the case. According to this ruling the employee's consent is necessary if he is being transferred for reasons of unsuitability for the work performed, but it is optional if there is a transfer because of staff duplication. This hardly seems correct.

Violation of the rule regarding an employee's preliminary consent to being transferred is of itself enough for calling the transfer illegal. In such cases other circumstances with a bearing on questions of legality of the transfer are immaterial. Sometimes this principle is not adhered to by the courts with sufficient consistency.

V. M. Nekrylov worked as senior inspection accountant at the Kazakh Republic lumber construction trade office. On May 24, 1958 he was transferred as accountant to the Alma-Ata trade center. The court of the 1st Section of Lenin District of Alma-Ata turned down his claim for reinstatement, the reason given being that the transfer had not been a demotion or hardship. The Legal Collegium for Civil Cases of the Alma-Ata Regional Court reversed this decision and again indicated that any transfer without an employee's consent is illegal, whether it is detrimental to him or not.

Thus the legal requirements in regard to obtaining an employee's consent to a proposed transfer are unequivocal. The overall rule which makes transfer to another place of work impossible without such consent is an important legal guarantee of the Soviet citizen's right to work. It follows that an employee's refusal to be transferred should not entail his automatic dismissal. This should be stated all the more emphatically since Article 37 of the Labor Code of the RSFSR states clearly that in case an employee defaults on his agreement to be transferred to another enterprise or locality, the labor contract may be broken by either side, with discharge compensation paid in either case.

The unsatisfactory wording of Article 37 became clear in the

early years of the operation of the Labor Code of the RSFSR. From this article it literally follows that management is entitled to dismiss any employee who does not agree to be transferred to another enterprise, office or locality, regardless of the grounds for the transfer. Originally this interpretation was accepted in legal practice. Yet it was correctly pointed out in literature on labor legislation as early as the Twenties that such practices violate the direct meaning of the law — that no dismissal can be recognized as proper unless the employee's reasons have been investigated.

The January 11, 1952 decision of the Plenary Session of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, a decision no longer valid, provided a useful explanation on that point. It was made clear that management cannot break a labor contract for reasons of an employee's refusal to be transferred to work in another capacity at the same enterprise or office or at another enterprise or office, or in another locality, unless grounds exist as specified in Article 47 of the Labor Code, such as elimination of the post held by the employee to be transferred. Dismissal for refusal to be transferred to another locality is possible only when the whole office or enterprise is to be transferred.

The September 13, 1957 decision of the Plenary Session of the Supreme Soviet did not reflect this principle, and this again led to the discrepancy between Part 2 of Article 37 of the Labor Code of the RSFSR and the statutes establishing the general rule of the impermissibility of transfer of an employee without his consent. With a view to eliminating this discrepancy, the wording of Part 2 of Article 37 should be made more specific, stipulating management's right to dismiss an employee for refusal to be transferred only in the following cases: a) if a transfer is proposed when there are legal grounds for the employee's dismissal; b) if transfer is necessitated by transfer of the entire enterprise or office to another locality.

Such a rule would also clarify the question of wording of reasons for dismissal. If the employee who has refused to be transferred may be dismissed only on the grounds stipulated in labor legislation, the wording of the reasons, when entered into his labor record, should textually correspond to one of the overall legal grounds for dismissal — i.e., "on account of liquidation of the enterprise" or "on account of staff duplication," etc.

In Soviet legal literature it has been properly pointed out that since the employee's transfer to another capacity is possible only with his consent there is no need to list the grounds for transfers in general legal form. Management can offer an employment transfer for various reasons and the employee can refuse transfer for various reasons also.

2. *Considerations of the employee's specialty and qualifications in employment transfers.* The principle of utilizing personnel according to their specialties has been maintained throughout the history of Soviet labor legislation and should be observed not only when an employee is hired but also when he is transferred. In a number of industries this principle implies that technicians who have been trained industrially — via industrial-technical courses, for example — are to be given priority in filling the posts of team leader, foreman or mechanic. Similarly many collective bargaining contracts now in force stipulate that management must transfer technicians as their skills improve to occupations requiring higher skills, establishing higher pay rate categories after successful tests or trial periods. Some collective bargaining contracts specify that a technician who has been fulfilling output quotas for three consecutive months in an occupation requiring a higher skill has priority in transfer to a higher qualification category, corresponding to the work he has been performing.

The Supreme Court of the USSR and the Procurator's Office of the USSR also hold that an employee's transfer to work in a different capacity, if this is done as a disciplinary measure, should not go beyond his range of occupation.

There are only two exceptions to this general rule: a) transfer to any other work is allowed, in accordance with Article 36 of the Labor Code of the RSFSR, in emergencies, to prevent imminent disaster; b) in accordance with Article 37 of the Labor Code, an employee may be temporarily entrusted with work not specified by the labor contract in cases of production necessity or idle time.

But under Article 36 of the Labor Code of the Uzbek Republic a temporary transfer in cases of production necessity is allowed only with the employee's skill fully taken into account — again excepting emergencies where transfer is necessary to prevent imminent danger. As regards transfers for reasons of idle time, the February 25 and October 22, 1932 decisions of the USSR People's



Commissariat of Labor, which are now in force, forbid the transfer of skilled technicians to yard work, carting and carrying, cleaning and transportation, as well as the transfer of skilled employees to unskilled work, except in cases when such work is necessitated by elemental calamities.

In legal literature it has been repeatedly suggested that the rule of taking into account an employee's specialty and qualifications be extended to embrace all cases of provisional transfer for reasons of production necessity.

In the draft Fundamentals of Labor Legislation of the USSR and Union Republics published for discussion, it is proposed that an employee's specialty and qualifications should be taken into consideration only in cases of transfer for reasons of idle time. As for provisional transfers for reasons of production necessity, no such indication appears in the draft. Several articles on the draft Fundamentals suggest incorporating the rule that transfer for reasons of production necessity be permitted only if the new work corresponds to the worker's specialty and qualification, except in cases of emergency, when transfer is necessary to avert imminent danger.

Parallel with this proposal the opposite view has also been expressed in discussion, namely that it should be possible to put an employee to work in any capacity, not only in cases of production necessity but during idle time as well. The argument advanced is as follows: the requirement that an employee's specialty and qualifications be taken into account in relation to idle time transfers implies that he may not be transferred in another capacity unless there is work available which corresponds to his qualifications and specialty; but this runs counter to the interests of both employee and enterprise, since any work during idle time always guarantees average wages while the pay of an employee who is not working is limited — this according to both legislation now in force and to the draft Fundamentals.

Though this argument deserves consideration, the proposal concerning incorporation in the Fundamentals of the article permitting idle time transfers to any occupation at all is basically unacceptable. It would make possible use of employees without taking into account their specialty and qualifications, even where proper work is available. Taking account of an employee's specialty and qualifications in all cases of provisional transfer — regardless of reason —



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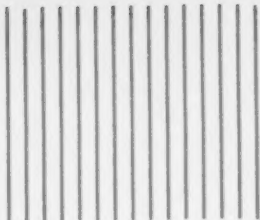
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would better correspond to the interests of both himself and the enterprise. Work according to an employee's specialty and qualifications is more productive than work which is unfamiliar or scarcely familiar, or work in a lower qualification. If no work that corresponds to his qualifications is available at his own enterprise, management should have the right to put him to work in a capacity that approximates his knowledge and experience as closely as possible. It should be stipulated that an employee's consent for such transfer is also obligatory.

The general laws forbidding transfer to work which does not correspond to an employee's qualifications should be incorporated not only in the All-Union Fundamentals of Labor Legislation but also in the new Republic Codes. Certain exceptions should be specified, in particular the employee's provisional transfer with his consent for work in civil construction for a relatively lengthy period, under what is known as the "labor participation scheme," a new practice which has recently developed in large industrial centers.

One of the elements of the complex legal pattern of relations between the employee and his enterprise under the "labor participation scheme" is the possibility of transfer to work which obviously does not correspond to his specialty and qualifications — for example, the transfer of a fitter, lathe operator or machine operator to work as bricklayer, plasterer, painter or carpenter. In such a case the employee is transferred for his own sake and with his consent for a stated period recorded in writing; when construction of the particular project, in which he is entitled to tenancy, has been completed, the employee is to be transferred back to his original work. But a transfer of this kind is a specific case covered by special rules. As special cases arising from the problem of intensifying residential construction, such transfers cannot be permitted to undermine the basic principle of forbidding the transfer of employees to work which does not correspond to their specialties and qualifications.

## Public Participation in Settling Labor Disputes

By Evgeny Klyenov

The role of trade union and public groups in handling dismissals and reinstatements is discussed and examples are given of how this works in practice. *Sovetskoye Gosudarstvo i Pravo (Soviet State and Law)*, 1961, No. 1.

THE ADVANCE of Soviet society toward communism requires steady intensification of educational work among the people and the creation of conditions that will make the observance of rules and regulations become a human habit, and work a vital human necessity. As the consciousness of the masses continues to develop and the role of public bodies in communist construction increases, public influence will gradually replace disciplinary measures.

This increase in the role of public bodies is connected with the transfer to them of ever greater rights in settling independently certain questions concerning the members of these bodies. Here the forms of expression of public opinion may be most varied, but they have a single aim—to develop in the people a socialist attitude toward work and the discharge of their duties. One aspect of this is to place the factory or office worker who has committed a misdemeanor under the constant control of his workmates.

At the Rostov Machine-Building Plant grinding machine operator Z., of a machine shop shift which joined the emulation movement for the title of communist work team, was absent from work without good reason. Previously Z. had come to work drunk. The shop management decided to dismiss him for breach of labor

discipline. The trade union organization, however, took a different attitude. It called a general shop meeting at which Z.'s misbehavior was discussed. The offender realized his behavior was antisocial and promised to mend his ways. The workers decided to take upon themselves Z.'s re-education and requested management to let him remain on the job. Z. appreciated the collective's confidence. Today he regularly does 200 to 250 per cent of his production quota, strictly abides by labor discipline and participates in the social life of the factory.

In connection with the tremendous significance of probation where the collective undertakes supervision, the question arises of how this relates to judicial bodies which settle labor disputes, particularly disputes involving job reinstatement. These bodies cannot but take into consideration such expressions of public opinion.

There may be instances where a collective of workers and office employees of an establishment examines the legality of dismissal of a worker after management has issued the discharge order. Thus L., a mechanic at the Rostov Repair and Machine Shop, was dismissed for coming to work drunk and beating up his team leader when the latter reproved him. L. filed suit in a people's court for reinstatement on the grounds that management had made an error in drawing up the discharge order, indicating that he was being dismissed in accordance with Point D, Article 47, of the Labor Code of the RSFSR, although criminal proceedings had not been instituted against him. The people's judge of Stalin District notified the shop of the suit. A general meeting of the workers and office employees of the shop ruled that it was out of the question for L. to return to the shop and petitioned the court to deny L.'s suit. The people's court took into consideration the opinion of the collective and proceeded accordingly, after altering the wording of the discharge order.

Nor can higher courts fail to take into consideration similar petitions. For instance, the Judicial Collegium for Civil Cases of the Supreme Court of the RSFSR upheld the protest of the President of the Supreme Court of the RSFSR and reversed the decision of the Presidium of the Kalinin Regional Court by which S. was denied reinstatement on a job at the Iskoz Factory. In doing so the Judicial Collegium noted that the regional court had failed

to take into consideration the favorable testimony given by a trade union organization and statements made by factory workers in court and in the procurator's office, requesting that he be reinstated as team leader. A similar point of view was expressed by the Judicial Collegium for Civil Cases of the Supreme Court of the RSFSR in a number of other decisions.

The practice of employing educational measures such as probation, with the delinquent released on suspended sentence under the supervision of a collective of working people or a public organization, has fully justified itself. For this measure to be fully effective it is necessary that the collective under whose supervision the lawbreaker is placed exercise constant control over him and help him reform. There may however be cases where a person placed on probation under such supervision tries to evade the control of the collective by submitting an application to cancel his labor contract, i.e., to be released from his job (Article 46, Labor Code of RSFSR). Legislation now in force contains no regulations restricting the right of a worker or office employee to cancel a labor contract merely because the petitioner is on probation under the supervision of a collective.

Nor does it appear to be correct procedure in such cases to refuse to exercise supervision over a probationer and to reopen the criminal case, as is recommended in legal literature and is sometimes done in the judiciary practice of Rostov Region.

Transfer of a worker or office employee to another establishment does not mean that the need to re-educate him no longer exists, so that refusal to exercise supervision is justified only in exceptional cases. Under such circumstances the most acceptable practice would be to shift the probationer to the collective at the establishment to which he transfers.

However, in order that such persons remain under constant control of the public, it is necessary to make management responsible for informing the local trade union committee of any applications for release from their jobs received from probationers taken under the collective's supervision.\*

\*With a view to combatting turnover of personnel, it is advisable for management to keep local trade union committees advised of all applications received from workers and office employees to cancel labor contracts, thus giving the committees an opportunity to take the necessary steps to remove

A suspended sentence does not serve as an obstacle to getting a job and cannot be considered grounds for dismissal. However judiciary practice has not been uniform in deciding the question of whether probationers taken under supervision by a collective enjoy any special privileges when a cut in staff is being effected.

The judgment passed by the people's court of Proletarsky District in Rostov in a reinstatement suit filed by joiner X. against a furniture factory is entirely correct. In examining this case the court proceeded from considerations of the worker's qualifications for remaining on the job and pointed out that the fact that he was a probationer under the supervision of the factory collective did not give him a priority to keep his job.

The right to apply public influence measures falls within the competence of the comrades' courts, the whole meaning of their activity being to work for communist education of the Soviet citizen.

In the main, measures taken by comrades' courts are of an educational, preventive nature. True, the law gives them the right to place the question of dismissing a worker or office employee before the management of an establishment. Yet it must not be forgotten that as a rule dismissal does not achieve any educational purpose and may serve as punishment only when there is legal basis for it, such as absenteeism, systematic criminal neglect of duties on the job, etc., and therefore mere petition by a comrades' court to dismiss a worker or office employee is insufficient. At the same time petition by a comrades' court to release someone does not set aside the duty of management to come to an agreement with the factory trade union committee on the question of dismissal. For example the people's court of Stalin District in Taganrog, in deciding to reinstate chauffeur K., dismissed on the basis of a comrades' court decision, pointed out that K. had never been previously punished

legitimate causes for contract cancellations, such as housing provisions, placement of a child in a children's institution, etc. Such a measure is also necessitated by the fact that the *Decree of the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet on Temporary Disability Benefits for Workers and Office Employees Who Have Left Their Previous Place of Work of Their Own Free Will, January 25, 1960*, removed restrictions in the payment of temporary disability benefits in the case of workers and office employees who leave their place of work of their own free will.



and that management had violated Point 10 of the Statute on the Rights of a Factory Trade Union Committee by not coming to an agreement with the local committee regarding the dismissal. The Judiciary Collegium for Civil Cases of the Rostov Regional Court upheld the decision of the people's court.

The comrades' courts are exerting a favorable influence on the operation of enterprises, promoting efforts to maintain socialist property in good order, to observe safety measures, etc. Typical in this respect is the session of the comrades' court at the Rostov Machine-Building Plant of March 28, 1959, attended by workers and office employees of the whole establishment. Examining the causes of an accident suffered by press operator Z., the comrades' court, after hearing statements by numerous workers, office employees and engineering and technical personnel, established that Z. had violated safety regulations by failing to use pincers to place parts into a die, which resulted in her injury.

It was also established that foreman L. had failed to exercise proper control over the work of press operator Z. The comrades' court cautioned press operator Z. and gave foreman L. a public reprimand. Examination of similar cases by the comrades' court led to a sharp drop in the number of accidents at the plant.

The comrades' courts also examine questions of a worker's amoral behavior in his private or family life. But the measures taken to influence an offender for such conduct cannot be considered in dismissals under Point G of Article 47, Labor Code of the RSFSR, since personal conduct is not connected with the job and cannot therefore be regarded as violation of labor discipline. The decision of the people's court of Rostov in the Kirov District to reinstate chauffeur C., who had been dismissed by a comrades' court for quarreling with his wife, is a correct decision, even though the defendant had been previously punished for violating labor discipline.

In connection with the greater role played by the public in efforts to strengthen labor discipline, the courts in settling conflicts over dismissal in accordance with Point G., Article 47, of the Labor Code of the RSFSR, must take into account the decisions of general meetings of collectives and public organizations condemning the behavior of a worker or office employee on his job.

The Supreme Court of the RSFSR considers that measures of

public influence may be taken not only by comrades' courts alone. Thus in the case of T., examined by the Judicial Collegium for Civil Cases of the Supreme Court of the RSFSR on October 28, 1959, taken into account were not only measures of influence applied by the comrades' court but also punishment imposed on T. by his trade union organization for committing a breach of labor discipline.

The question of public participation in settling labor disputes is closely connected with public representation at court. It is stated in the Rules of the Trade Unions of the USSR that the trade unions speak on behalf of the workers and office employees of industrial establishments, offices and organizations in all matters pertaining to labor, daily life and culture. Hence in addition to taking direct part in settling cases in the Labor Disputes Commission and the factory trade union committee, members of a local trade union committee have a right to represent the interests of individual workers and office employees when these disputes are examined in court. It must be noted that factory trade union committees have slackened their efforts in this field during the past few years. Thus in analyzing job reinstatement disputes examined in the people's court of Rostov Region over the period of 1958-1959, it was established that in only four of the 483 cases studied did representatives of the factory trade union committee speak in court. Yet active participation of representatives of the trade union organization greatly helps the court ascertain the actual circumstances in a dispute. All this makes it necessary to extend public participation in settling labor disputes in court.

There may be cases where a statement by a member of the factory trade union committee would be inadvisable (for example, in a dispute on reinstating a person dismissed with the consent of the committee). The question therefore arises whether only a member of the local trade union committee may speak in defense of the interests of a worker when the collective guarantees to reeducate the worker and asks to have him reinstated on the job. A collective of workers and office employees which considers it possible to come out in someone's defense has the right to authorize any person to speak in court. S., a worker at the Rostov Machine-Building Plant, was dismissed for committing a breach of labor

discipline. The question of his dismissal had previously been submitted to the factory trade union committee for approval; but taking into consideration a written statement by S. promising strictly to abide by labor discipline in the future and a resolution by the trade union group in the shop noting that his misbehavior had been discussed, and thinking it possible to let him remain in the collective, the factory trade union committee re-examined the whole question. Since plant management refused to rescind the order dismissing S., the factory trade union committee instructed the public labor protection inspector to speak in defense of S.'s interests at the court hearing. The people's court took public opinion into consideration and reinstated S. on the job.

Participation of workers and office employees in settling labor disputes at industrial establishments and offices has led to a considerable drop in labor cases coming before the people's courts: whereas in 1957 labor cases accounted for 7.9% of all civil cases examined by the people's courts of Rostov Region, in 1958 the figure had dropped to 6.5% and in 1959 to 6.2%.

It should be noted however that in disputes over reinstatement the people's courts grant 49.7% of the suits. Such a situation demands intensification of mass work in explaining labor legislation, in eliminating the causes engendering labor disputes and finally in uncovering instances of illegal dismissal of workers and office employees.

The 21st Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union devoted much attention to the question of improving educational work among the working people. "The principal thing here is prophylaxis, education" (N. S. Khrushchev, *Target Figures for the Economic Development of the USSR for 1959-1965*, Gospolitizdat, p. 12). An effective means of education is the examination of labor disputes right at the industrial establishment or the office. The people's courts of Rostov Region are making ever wider use of this form of educational work in conjunction with explanations of special aspects of labor legislation, lectures and reports. Thus after examining two labor cases in the club of the workers' supply department of the Shakhtantratsit Trust the people's judge of Lenin District in the city of Shakhta, in collaboration with management and members of the local trade union committee, looked into the causes of these disputes and pointed out other instances of breach

of labor legislation. Several days later the public procurator of that district delivered a lecture on labor legislation before the entire collective of the workers' supply department.

Similar work is being done by the people's judges of Ordzhonikidze District in the city of Taganrog, of Stalin and Proletarsky Districts in the city of Rostov, and others.

Effective tools in the campaign to eliminate the causes that give rise to labor disputes are the individual decisions handed down by judicial bodies in establishing shortcomings in work. The comrades' courts are also obligated to warn against any such shortcomings noted. Thus the comrades' court in the combine-harvester department of the Rostov Farm Machinery Plant, in trying to establish the reasons why N. was absent from work, found that the shop management systematically made N. work overtime (owing to the illness of two other mechanics). The comrades' court brought these instances of breaches of labor laws to the attention of the factory trade union committee. The committee examined the issue at a meeting and raised the question of responsibility of the guilty parties.

In this period of large-scale construction of communism, public participation in consolidating the laws that have become established in our society will continue to grow. This becomes a guarantee that the conditions engendering the disputes will be abolished.

## The Physician's Role in Educating the Working People to Scientific Atheism

By V. G. Yeliseyev

This report of a conference on atheist education discusses how medical personnel are expected to help in developing a materialist outlook in the course of their work. *Voprosy Filosofii (Problems of Philosophy)*, 1961, No. 4.

TOWARD the end of last year a conference of civically active medical personnel was held in the House of Political Education of the Moscow Committee and the Moscow City Committee of the CPSU. The subject was "The Physician's Role in Educating the Working People to Scientific Atheism."

Persons attending the conference included doctors and personnel of the Moscow urban and regional public health departments, medical schools, Ministry of Public Health, Houses of Education in Hygiene and the medical press.

In opening the conference the chairman, P. V. Svechnikov, observed that further stimulation of anti-religious propaganda assumed the development of painstaking, individual work with the religious as well as broader employment of various methods to popularize science for purposes of teaching atheism. Our medical workers can play an exceptionally important role in both these directions. The time has come to discuss the role of the physician in educating the working people to scientific atheism, to share experiences and to plot out jointly the ways in which this role may be improved.

A majority of the speakers (Comrades Salnikov, Travina, Geselovich, Yeliseyev, Gofman-Kadochnikov, Bogdanovich, Andreyev,

Blokhin and others) emphasized that one of the major problems today is that of improving the scientific level of the teaching of atheism through able and comprehensible propagation of the outstanding achievements of modern science, including biology and medicine.

All the speakers noted that the physician occupies a unique position in the system of anti-religious education.

The physician is close to the sick individual. He enjoys authority among the people. It is not only the sick who come to him for advice and assistance. Often the word of the doctor is taken as law not only by the sick but by the well individual.

The personal contacts of the doctor with representatives of the most varied sections of our population are very broad. The physician is in a position not only to lecture, but to make use of house visits or hospital examination of the patient to explain, if necessary, the lack of validity of a religious understanding of his illness, show how science struggles for the health of the individual, how much damage is done by religious prejudices.

We know that many religious believers never attend lectures on atheism but will gladly go to lectures on biology and medicine. Thus it is the skill of the physician-lecturer that determines the degree to which, without ridiculing the religious sentiments of communicants, he is able by combining medical and atheistic material to convince his listeners of the correctness of materialist views.

Inasmuch as it is one of the sciences dealing with man, medicine may be utilized very broadly and interestingly to illuminate rather general problems of scientific atheism. Today medicine offers so many "miracles" greater than those of the gospels that their mere description acquires a distinctively atheist character. Cases of the resuscitation of persons in a state of clinical death are not uncommon as is the use of equipment such as artificial hearts and lungs (making it possible, for example, to stop the heart and operate on it) or the artificial kidney (permitting prolongation of the lives of individuals whose kidneys have been damaged by disease). It is appropriate to describe hypothermy (the freezing of a patient to a condition very similar to death, followed by revivification).

Today there are "miracle" machines making it possible to change the rhythm of the heartbeat. This is of vast importance in certain serious diseases involving auricular fibrillation. Moreover, this appa-

ratus may join a healthy person and a sick one, "compelling" the heart of the sick to beat in rhythm with that of the well individual.

A Catholic once quipped that "God, in creating man, did not provide him with spare parts." Today, however man is "improving on God" and creating "spare parts" for his own body. Today there are corrugated nylon and capron tubes of various lengths which may be used to replace damaged blood vessels; a complete hip joint has been made of plastic; it is possible to replace the esophagus and other organs.

Able explanations of questions such as these may be of substantial help in shaping a materialist outlook.

What's more, such subjects as the prolongation of the life span are something to which the faithful and the nonbeliever will listen with equal interest. Even if the communicant starts out convinced that "the life of man has been predetermined," a lecture may convince him, through offering specific and vivid examples, that human life is capable of being prolonged and that its prolongation can and must be fought for. After all the mean life expectancy in our country has risen to 68, whereas in pre-Revolutionary Russia it was 32. Is this not proof that God's will has nothing to do with such matters?

Nor can we remain silent with regard to the harm done by certain religious practices. For example, if a cross or ikon has been kissed by a person with syphilis, this may cause wide dissemination of the disease. (The example chosen has not been invented.) Similarly it is necessary to explain the damage that may be done by christening and to cite examples of serious illness in children as a consequence of this custom.

Exposure of the quack is the special duty of the atheist physician. As a rule quacks are people with no medical training whatever. They treat the sick with the "aid of God" and tell nonbelievers that they are using the resources of folk medicine. Where only the doctor can help the quack does irreparable damage. It is useful in lectures on atheism to cite appropriate data from court cases. This makes criticism of quackery truly comprehensible and convincing.

The lecturer must also demonstrate that the quack's procedures do not at all resemble folk medicine, that, contrariwise, many methods of healing built up among the people over the centuries are drawn upon by modern scientific medicine.



An important problem for the atheist physician is to provide explanations for a number of complex and enigmatic processes in man's psychological life which religious ideology has long capitalized upon. In order to deal with this problem the physician must be thoroughly familiar with the psychology and physiology of the higher nervous system. "Dreams and Sleep," "Hypnosis and Suggestion" are subjects the proper and interesting illumination of which may play a major role in shaping an atheist concept of the world.

Many participants in the conference (Comrades L. A. Bogdanovich, P. B. Gofman-Kadochnikov and others) have shown that it is often necessary in anti-religious propaganda to pay particular attention to methods of influencing the individual emotionally. We cannot write or speak of atheism in stereotyped fashion. We must find words, facts and arguments that will excite and involve the listener. Each atheistic program must not only be rich in meaning but attractive and engrossing. For example, serious thought should be given to visual aids. Today we still face significant problems in this respect. It is difficult to find in our film-rental agencies movies useful for illustrating lectures on the teachings of I. P. Pavlov, for instance, or on problems of life and death.

V. G. Yeliseyev, Chairman of the Council for the Propagation of Scientific Atheism established at the I. M. Sechenov Moscow Medical School No. 1, dealt with the matter of educating students in atheism at medical schools.

Anti-religious propaganda in higher educational institutions is a serious and complex undertaking. Among the young people entering college there are still those who have been raised in religious families, and sometimes also individuals who have been drawn into religious denominations. Many of them, upon entering a healthy, well-knit Young Communist League environment, independently seek to free themselves of the muddle-headedness of religion; but there are others with whom it is necessary to work for a long time before they take the right path.

In the final analysis the problem of education in atheism is the problem of shaping a firm dialectical materialist world outlook among student youth. After all, this youth will only not add to our supply of physicians but to the ranks of active propagandists of dialectical materialist and atheist views of reality.

Problems of world orientation (including problems of anti-religi-

ous education) must be dealt with not only by our social science faculties but by those teaching specialized disciplines, while the material presented at lectures and in practical lessons must be organically merged with the anti-religious theme, not merely tacked on.

In this connection we envisage setting up a series of special goals for the various departments. For instance the department of general biology can handle the subject of atheism as it deals with problems of the origins of life and of man, the fundamentals of Darwinism, the teachings of Michurin and modern genetics. The same approach may be used in the departments of anatomy, histology and embryology, and physiology.

In this respect, the lecturer's philosophical knowledge is of particular importance. If factual data and philosophical problems are merged into one in a course, the student will be trained as a convinced materialist, without re-emphasis each time that "this is the right answer."

The atheistic training of the physicians of the future presupposes not only a series of new factors in teaching philosophy in our medical schools, but an increase in the depth in which students themselves study philosophical and atheist literature. The teachers of dialectical and historical materialism, and in a number of instances instructors in specialized subjects, have the problem of instilling in the youth an interest in and taste for independent study of philosophical works.

A new approach is also necessary to the organization of specialized factual material at lectures, seminars and on practical projects. In this field a certain amount of positive experience is already available.

The Department of Forensic Medicine of Moscow Medical School No. 1, for example, makes interesting use of its factual data. For who better than the forensic physician can describe religious mutilation, which sometimes leads not only to serious injuries but to death!

A deep impression was made on the listeners (with the result that the students themselves made use of some of the data in their own talks on atheism) by a lecturer on forensic medicine who cited evidence from the trial of one of the leaders of the *piatidesiatnik* Adventist sect.

A Council of Education in Scientific Atheism has been established at Moscow Medical School No. 1 to organize and effectuate a large number of measures of atheist education. It has approved elective lectures on atheism planned by the philosophy department of the school.

The course of lectures is planned to include the following themes: "Marxist Atheism — the Highest Form of Atheism," "The Origin of Religion," "The Scientific and the Religious World Views," "A Critique of Religious Morality," "The Attitude of the Communist Party and the Soviet Government to Religion and the Church," "A Critique of the Major Modern Religions: Christianity, Islam, Judaism, Buddhism, and Dissident Sects."

In bringing the conference to an end the chairman, P. V. Svechnikov, noted that doctors could greatly help in the difficult work which lies ahead in the propagation of atheism. In Moscow alone there are 36,800 medical workers, 338 institutions for hospitalization and 986 medical clinics. An effort must be made to have every local clinic take part in educational work among the people.

The significance of doctors' educational work is particularly great in the countryside, where every representative of Soviet intelligentsia, regardless of specialty, is a major cultural force.

The problem of the atheistic, and even more broadly, the philosophical training of the future doctor is today particularly important. For even in some of the institutions in our capital city there are among our medical personnel persons belonging to religious organizations. This means that the propagation of atheism must be reinforced in every way.

We cannot therefore accept as normal a situation where medical publications such as the magazine *Zdorovye* (*Health*) and the newspaper *Meditsinsky Rabotnik* (*The Medical Worker*) give virtually no attention to anti-religious activity. Our Houses of Education in Hygiene also fail to be adequately active here.

All participants in the conference mentioned in their talks that such an approach would doubtless have a positive effect on the work of various medical groups among the population and would give significant assistance to those physicians already participating in atheist education. Finally it would make it possible to attract new skilled personnel to the complex and important work of combatting religious ideology.

## Death Defeated

By P. Sevalnyova

A description of deep-freeze techniques developed to resuscitate victims of sudden death after clinical death has set in but degeneration of vital organs has not yet begun. *Nauka i Zhizn (Science and Life)*, 1961, No. 4.

THE SNOWSTORM was getting worse. Snow hurt the eyes and the frigid wind took the breath away. Stiff, numb fingers would not hold the tools. It seemed as if the two hours had been wasted; the damage was not mended, and the tractor engine was dead. And the man's strength was sapped. He was due back at the state farm, only about 10 kilometers away. . . .

Vladimir decided to walk it. He floundered in the snow drifts, got back on his feet and after taking another few steps would fall down again. . . . He was losing his strength, was no longer able to keep going. . . . At the last moment the thought that he was only 23 years old, that he had a wife and baby daughter, flashed through his brain. He was so eager to live. . . .

On the morning of March 26, 1960 the workers of Yaroslavsky State Farm, situated in the recently reclaimed areas of Aktyubinsk Region, found their comrade, tractor driver Vladimir Kharin, buried in a big snow drift. All symptoms indicated that he was dead. His legs were bent at the knees and were frozen stiff, his hands were clenched. The frozen body made a hollow sound when it was loaded into the truck. The eyes were glazed, a transparent icy film making them look artificial.

The dead man was brought to the state farm hospital. Here staff physician Pavel Abramyan carefully cut away the clothing

in order not to harm the frozen tissues of the body. Yes, there could be no doubt about it. The heart had stopped beating and there was no sign of breathing. The pupils of the eyes would not react to light, but the color of the flesh was not typically pallid. It was purplish-blue and it showed none of the characteristic signs of early decomposition. Suppose, the doctor wondered, this was not real death in the biological sense, but only clinical death? This meant the cells of the cerebrum had not begun to decompose. There was hope that the man could be brought back to life. True, until now the period of clinical death was thought to last only 5 to 6 minutes. But Vladimir, as far as the doctor could see, had frozen to death several hours earlier. However Abramyan knew that Professor Negovsky, a prominent scientist, had recently prolonged the period of clinical death — when experimenting with test animals — for as much as two hours! He had done this through deep hypothermy, the deep-freeze method. Suppose this were natural deep-freeze?

Dr. Abramyan called on his entire staff, the doctors and hospital nurses, to help. Vladimir's feet were bathed in warm water to make the blood vessels expand. The nurses kept rubbing the arms and the body with alcohol. Adrenaline was injected into the heart muscle. Then the doctor began to pump blood into the artery. Finally, when the tissues had softened, he began artificial respiration.

Vladimir showed the first symptoms of coming back to life 40 minutes later. His skin became warm. A faint, scarcely discernible heartbeat could be felt. The doctor now held Vladimir's life thread in his hands, so slender it could snap at any moment. Then the patient would die, die for good.

Another blood transfusion was made and Vladimir was put into a sterile bed warmed with hot-water bottles. Finally, he regained consciousness at 11 P.M., 12 hours after he had been brought to the hospital. He was able to answer the doctor's questions, tell how he had lain in the snow for about three hours.

Throughout the many months Vladimir spent in the hospital the doctors fought an unceasing battle for his life. Today he is well again and fit to work.

Would there have been as happy an ending if Vladimir Kharin

had frozen to death not in March 1960 but at the beginning of this century? Hardly. No one would have thought of resuscitating a dead body. The problem of resuscitation was put on a scientific basis only in the last 20 or 30 years.

Scientists have made a profound study of the processes that take place during the emergence of life, its normal development, during disease and finally during death. But how does life wither away? What processes take place in the organism while it is ebbing? How can these processes be arrested? What must be done to resuscitate a dying man? Until recently science knew no answers to these questions.

Today medicine and its related sciences have reached a level where to combat death—unnatural death, that is, or the death of a human being full of vitality but perishing from acute illness, a wound, loss of blood or embolism—has been put on the agenda. All those members of the medical profession who are studying the laws of stoppage and restoration of the functions of life—the pathophysiologists, surgeons, anesthesiologists and therapists—are given every encouragement in our country. That is why so much attention is being paid to the work of the Laboratory of Experimental Physiology and Resuscitation of the Academy of Medical Sciences of the USSR. This laboratory is the all-Union center for therapeutic treatment of terminal states such as heavy shock, agony or clinical death.

This is the laboratory headed by Prof. Vladimir Negovsky. He and his team of assistants have truly explored the virgin soil of this science. They are not only making a profound study of the processes that occur in the organism when life is ebbing away but are also ascertaining the norms of these processes and evolving methods of resuscitation.

They have been able to prove that many of the processes in a dying organism are quite different from those in the normal or even the sick organism. For instance, the electrical activity of the cerebral cortex and the conditioned reflexes degenerate long before the heart ceases to beat and respiration stops. During resuscitation the process is reversed. The vital organs resume their functions long after the heart has begun to beat and respiration has been restored. From this the conclusion was drawn that when a person dies, the cerebral cortex—upon whose activity our con-

sciousness and thought processes depend — degenerates before any other sections of the central nervous system and regenerates last. If the cerebral cortex ceases to function altogether, if its cells have begun to degenerate, the person is dead. This is true biological death, from which there is no return.

But there is another kind of death, so-called clinical death. Under normal conditions this is merely the lapse of 5 to 6 minutes after the heart has stopped beating and breathing ends. According to the scientists, clinical death is not strictly speaking death at all. The cells of the human body retain their internal vitality. The symptoms of death are only external. The patient has ceased to breathe, his heart has stopped beating, the eye pupils no longer react to light and the pulse cannot be felt.

The state of agony or shock is similar to this. Agony and shock are also terminal stages in life. Unless the patient is rescued from this state, he will die.

How can a dying man be saved? What influence must be brought to bear, on what processes, to prevent the cells of the central nervous system from degenerating?

Prof. Negovsky and his team have evolved the method of so-called comprehensive resuscitation, which is being utilized more and more extensively. Today there are over 40 resuscitation centers in the Soviet Union. Prof. Negovsky's work, *Resuscitation of the Organism and Artificial Hypothermy*, is a summary of the vast experience accumulated by him and his team. Their laboratory has received hundreds of letters from all corners of the country. It is in correspondence with numerous medical centers in Czechoslovakia, Poland, France and the USA.

The purpose of their method is to restore the heart and respiratory organs to normal functioning. In order to reactivate the heart, blood mixed with medication is pumped under pressure into a major artery. As it reaches the vessels that feed the heart muscle, this blood brings oxygen and other nutrients and at the same time stimulates the nerve endings in the blood vessels and in the heart muscle itself. This causes the dying heart, or the heart that has just stopped, to pulsate again.

The conventional method of blood transfusion by injection into the veins cannot be applied here, for if the heart has stopped beating the blood will not reach the coronary vessels which supply



it with nutrients. Therefore such injection would be useless.

Artificial respiration is the second obligatory requisite for resuscitation. Special apparatus has been devised to pump air into the lungs in prescribed doses and under prescribed pressures. When this is not possible, however, ordinary artificial respiration may be applied. Not a moment must be lost if a life is to be saved.

Prof. Negovsky and his assistants introduced blood into the artery and applied artificial respiration at the front, during World War II. They have saved many women dying of loss of blood during childbirth, saved many infants born in a state of asphyxiation.

And now a few words about electrical defibrillation of the heart, a very new laboratory technique.

When a man dies, defibrillation of the heart occurs, the fibers of the heart muscle stop working in harmony. The heart stops carrying out its function as a pump. In such cases a defibrillator — an apparatus developed in the laboratory jointly with the Lenin Electro-Technical Institute of the USSR — comes to the doctor's aid. It forces the heart to beat normally.

In the past few years the personnel of the laboratory introduced the method of direct massage of the heart into the procedure of resuscitation. They synthesized the experience of both Soviet and foreign surgeons who have resorted to this extreme measure in the battle for human life. They made a systematic study of the effects of direct massage on the exposed heart and evolved ways for increasing the effectiveness of this method. They defined the significance of massage in the entire complex of measures of resuscitation. The personnel of the laboratory have not only learned to give direct massage to the heart but have also trained a large army of doctors in this art.

"Massage of the heart," says Professor Negovsky, "should be widely practiced not only by ambulance doctors but by all doctors in general and even by doctors' assistants. All members of the profession should know how to apply such massage. The result will be that there will be fewer fatalities — death will be more often defeated."

It is these very methods of resuscitation that helped Dr. Abramyan restore Vladimir Kharin to life after he had frozen in the steppe. In his comments on that case Prof. Negovsky said that Dr.

Abramyan's success stemmed partly from the fact that nature itself had presented his patient with certain particularly favorable conditions that enabled him to survive prolonged clinical death.

In order to make this completely clear we should like to mention one other phase of the work of the laboratory, with one more illustration of their victory over death—in this case a matter of extending the period of clinical death.

The period of clinical death must in all cases be prolonged to the limit, for so long as death remains in the clinical stage there is hope of life. Clinical death, as we mentioned before, was at first known to last 5 to 6 minutes. Yet a doctor must have time to win his battle—would it be possible to give it to him? Would it be possible to induce a state during which all the processes of life would be slowed down to a maximum, even those processes which lead to early decomposition of the nerve cells of the cerebrum?

At the turn of the century the Russian scientist Profiry Bakhmetiev established that during hibernation the functions of life in cold-blooded animals almost stopped. The animals seemed to be in a peculiar state of anesthesia. But if they were warmed up they came to life after a time. Bakhmetiev also proved that the same phenomenon of concealed, exceedingly retarded life could be induced in warm-blooded animals if they were gradually cooled under anesthetics. He used carbon dioxide as his anesthetic and caused bats to hibernate.

Today surgery—heart surgery in particular—is making use of Bakhmetiev's ideas. By artificially cooling the human body surgeons have managed to slow down its functions. In this condition it is easier for the patient to survive a major operation. The artificial cooling of the organism—what doctors call hypothermy or deep-freeze—is used in heart operations by Professors Bakhulev, Petrovsky, Meshalkin, Vishnevsky and many others.

It has seemed logical to resort to deep-freeze to prolong the period of clinical death. Some of the investigations undertaken in this field have been described in literature. After cooling, the period of clinical death in animals was somewhat extended; however their nervous system, particularly the higher nerve centers, were not fully restored. The animals could not return to normal life.

Research was started at the laboratory a few years ago. There was no royal road to success. Only after many long, painstaking efforts were the professor and his assistants finally able to extend the period of clinical death in dogs from 5 to 6 minutes to 30 to 40 minutes and eventually an hour. The dogs' conditions afterwards remained quite normal. Recently Prof. Negovsky's assistants succeeded for the first time in world practice to extend the period of clinical death in dogs to two full hours. They did this by employing deep-freeze in combination with anesthesia.

Here are a few details about one such experiment:

A stranger entering the laboratory kennels is overwhelmed by the barking of the dogs, all of them experimental animals. Among them is Tzygan, a black, attractive and friendly pooch who barks with the rest. From the looks of him you could never guess he has returned from non-existence, yet a year ago he was dead for two hours.

First nembutal was injected into his bloodstream to put him to sleep. Then he was placed in a special bath filled with water and floating ice. When the temperature of the dog's body had gone down to 20°C. one of his veins was opened. The blood slowly trickled out, and life went with it; 25 minutes later the heart had stopped beating and the dog was no longer breathing. This was clinical death. It was allowed to go on for two hours.

During this time the temperature of Tzygan's body fell to 11°C. It was then time to start the warming-up process and proceed with resuscitation. Blood was pumped into an artery and artificial respiration applied. The activity of the heart was restored. True, the heart was not steady at first. At times the blood pressure fell and fibrillation would set in. Heart activity was fully restored 25 minutes after the resuscitation process had been started. At the 30th minute the first respiratory movements were observed and independent breathing became faster and more rhythmical. The artificial respiration apparatus was no longer necessary.

By the end of the first day after resuscitation began Tzygan started to raise his head and accepted liquid food. The next day he was on his feet and beginning to walk. Only a minor impairment of coordination was observed. Tzygan's movements were shaky. Later on all functions were fully restored and today he is no different from the other animals.

In the kennels there are several other dogs which have been restored to life after two-hour periods of clinical death.

"But two hours is still not the limit," the professor told us confidently. "I am sure that the time can be extended considerably. This will open up broad new horizons to medicine, heart surgery especially. Deep hypothermy may come in handy in treating asphyxiation in new-born infants. We now need to elaborate methods for prolonging the period of clinical death and apply them in our clinical practices."

In mid-December 1960 a conference on resuscitation was held in Moscow. It summed up the first experiences in restoring dying patients — work which had been conducted in Moscow, Leningrad, Kharkov, Poltava and other cities. Dozens of reports were given and many interesting questions relating to cure of terminal states discussed. One of the questions dealt with the most effective methods of resuscitation of new-born babies. What was the most effective way of dealing with the state of asphyxiation in new-born infants? Prof. Negovsky's laboratory announced that they had found artificial respiration by means of apparatus of simple design most successful. Their claim was substantiated by facts. Hundreds upon hundreds of new-born infants who once would have died have been saved in our country with the help of artificial respiration given by special apparatus.

Prof. Syrovatko, an expert in obstetrics, then made a moving speech. He called Prof. Negovsky's team human beings who deserved to have those words spelled in capital letters. "They spare neither themselves nor their health," he said. "Whenever an obstetrician needs help they arrive at the maternity hospital at a moment's notice. They help restore to life mothers on the verge of death. The maternity hospitals which employ Prof. Negovsky's methods have sharply reduced the death rate of both mothers and infants. In Poltava, for instance, the death rate has been brought down to practically zero."

In this respect the maternity hospitals of Poltava are a school of advanced experience.

But let us go back to Vladimir Kharin's case. "A very interesting one," according to Prof. Negovsky himself, "but not so incredible. We already know that under certain special circumstances — always

provided anesthesia is used — if the body temperature is brought down to 10-12°C. resuscitation is possible even after a two-hour clinical death period.

"Vladimir froze, his body temperature dropped sharply — in other words he went into deep-freeze. He also lost consciousness. When this happens the breathing process changes. It becomes slower and shallower. This kind of breathing serves to accumulate carbon dioxide in the blood, a very important point. It was precisely carbon dioxide that Bakhmetiev used as his anesthetic in inducing artificial hibernation in warm-blooded animals.

"One other point. Vladimir spent about three hours in a snow drift. But was he in a state of clinical death during all this time? The actual period of clinical death may have been from one and a half to two hours. Before that Vladimir's heart had been beating — slowly and feebly, to be sure, but beating nevertheless. The factor that played a decisive role here was the courage and ingenuity shown by Dr. Abramyan, his skill and knowledge, and the skill and discipline of the entire staff of the hospital where Vladimir was taken.

"The time will come when death is cured as today it is possible to cure influenza, pneumonia, tuberculosis or any other virulent disease," he concluded. These words were spoken by Prof. Negovsky on the basis of firm knowledge. They give us an idea of the great task which he and his staff have set themselves as they explore new fields of science and write a new chapter in biology, perhaps even creating a new branch of natural science.

## Too Much Work in the Boarding Schools!

By B. Shirvindt

An important new development in Soviet education is the nation-wide organization of a system of boarding schools for children. The following article by the Principal of Boarding School No. 15, Moscow, deals critically with a current pedagogical problem — over-loading children with classes and homework. "We Must Find A New Way — And Can," *Izvestia*, March 23, 1961.

FOR MANY years educators have been looking for a way to relieve pupils of the heavy load of lessons, classes and homework they carry. It is a problem which also disturbs doctors and parents. All our efforts thus far to lighten the children's burden have failed to yield concrete results. To be sure there are some theoreticians who hold that the new curricular plans and the programs introduced automatically eliminate the problem; they say we are only bothering our heads over it through habit. We think they are over-optimistic. We workers in boarding schools have come face to face with the worst effects of this overtaxing of the pupils' strength. It is our job to organize the child's entire day. In doing that we must take into consideration all aspects of his development — mental, physical and ethical.

The author of the present article has been working in a boarding school for five years; for five years we have been pressed for time, trying to find hours for reading, for rest, for extra-curricular activities or just walks in the fresh air.

We are not only aware of the fact of over-loading; we have also seen what tremendous possibilities the new schools have for dealing successfully with the problem.

What is a boarding school? Just an ordinary school with a dormitory attached to it? Hardly. The question thus put is not an idle one, however. We know from our own experience that the main shortcomings and difficulties we have to deal with come precisely from the fact that the methods in use in the ordinary schools are are mechanically carried over to the boarding schools. We are not taking proper advantage of the opportunities the specific set-up of the boarding schools offers.

Everywhere we hear people say: the boarding school is the school of the future; it must be a model of how to combine studies with productive labor and more effective training of our children physically, esthetically, ethically and so on. Yet the new school has practically no way of attaining those high goals (it is not a question of money, of course — money is something the boarding schools have been adequately provided with). It must be made clear to all, including the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR, that the boarding school is an altogether new type of educational establishment which will not really be new at all unless it finds new educational methods as a basis for new curricular plans.

Imagine the following: after breakfast, the class is taken by bus to Archangelskoye. Along the way the history teacher tells the children about Greek art. Then, when they reach the Museum Estate, she points out the ancient statues in the park of the Yussupov Palace. The old bed of the Moskva River and the lakes are material for a lesson in geography. The children have had an outing and at lunch have even learned a little something about house-keeping and cooking. On their return to the boarding school they write a composition in their literature class on the subject of "What We Saw at Archangelskoye."

I can almost see the ironical smiles on some faces and hear the comment, "But that is daydreaming! Impossible!"

And this is what we have now:

1st lesson: literature

2nd lesson: Russian

3rd lesson: mathematics

4th lesson: history

5th and 6th lessons: work

By the end of the 6th lesson it is 2 o'clock in the afternoon. The children have lunch and take a walk in the yard. At 4 they return



to their classrooms to prepare their homework for the next day. This keeps them busy until 6:30. There they are, towards evening, thirty of them in one room, studying by electric light. Only then do they have an hour and a half of "free time" to themselves before supper. Finally, preparations for the night and sleep.

Eight and a half hours of sitting in the classroom! That, unfortunately, is not a dream; that is the reality.

Worse still, if the pupil is not very quick at his studies he has to keep at his lessons until supper time. Then how can we say that over-loading is just something we talk about by inertia or habit, when even in the elementary grades the children are required to spend as much as two hours on their homework? In the upper grades they stay up studying until the last gong for bedtime if they want to get through with all their lessons properly for the following day.

In the ordinary school the pupil goes home and it is hard to find out exactly what he does. But in the boarding school he is right there for us to watch. . . .

When are the children to engage in manual work, sports and play, or to rest — as the newspaper *Vechernyaya Moskva* asked the principal of Boarding School No. 6 in Moscow? When are they to find time to polish floors, clear away the snow, peel potatoes? When are they to hold their Pioneer meetings, go on excursions and, last but not least — read?

Here is what actually happens now:

Before the summer our children decided to earn a little money, which they knew would stand them in good stead during their summer hikes. Their class teacher and the Council of their Pioneer Organization arranged for the pupils of the 8th grade to peel tangerines at a fruit juice factory. I approved the project. After lunch the children left for the factory. Half an hour on the way, two hours at work, half an hour back, and they had missed their "study hour"; their homework was left undone. The idea was a good one but had to be abandoned.

The team of Boarding School No. 25 challenged the hockey team of our 8th grade to a game. We went, lost, came back — and did not do our lessons. The next day there were five "Poor" marks in literature.

A Pioneer unit held a get-together at which a prominent army

man, after watching their amateur arts concert, told the children many interesting stories of his career while they had their tea. It was a wonderful meeting. The general did not know how miserable the head teacher of the class was! Her only thought was that the children would have to do their lessons in the evening, right up to bedtime.

The assistant principal appealed to me and to all the teachers to stop distracting the children from their studies. "Enough of such meetings and outings! The children must study. It's almost the end of the first quarter. Look at the marks they've been getting!" As luck would have it, the children had all kinds of interesting plans up their sleeves. These had to be postponed.

If only there were no lessons to do in the afternoon! If only the children could get through with all their studies before two, then after lunch engage in sports, work, excursions, their circles. . . .

Obviously educational theory and practice cannot relinquish the idea that the only way to get good results in learning is to load the pupils down with huge programs which include innumerable themes, and keep their noses to the grindstone for as many hours as possible, both in the classroom and after school. But that is wrong. The amount of material taught nowadays is tremendous but the level of assimilation of that knowledge is by no means as great as some pedagogues suppose.

There is an overwhelming preponderance of "Fair" marks in all schools, boarding schools included. It is causing uneasiness in the Ministry of Education and the RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. The number of "Fair" marks should have made us all start thinking long ago about the *quality* of learning and pupil achievement. Some people try to put all the blame on the large number of hours devoted to work. But that explanation is hardly convincing, for the situation in respect to marks is still much the same as it was in the early fifties, when lessons in work took up very little time.

Why doesn't anyone object to the fact that now, as then, children 7 to 9 years of age spend four hours before lunch and another two hours after lunch studying — while those a little older work five to six hours before and three to four hours after lunch? That is where the real root of the trouble lies.

Let us see how matters stand, for instance, as concerns proper

speech habits. One might think that with so many curricular hours devoted to it, this subject would cease to be a problem. Actually we find that even upper grade pupils have not learned to relate a story well, that they recite the substance of their textbook assignments in dull, dry language, that they lose their tongues when asked to share their thoughts or impressions with others. Listen to the way they speak at their meetings: if they are not parroting the words of some adult (perhaps a teacher) which they have committed to memory they use a limited, flat vocabulary.

"To teach children to use lively, descriptive language," wrote Nadezhda Konstantinovna Krupskaya, "they must be taught first of all to see and observe." But what opportunity do our pupils have to see and observe under the existing curricular schedules?

It is my firm conviction that at least in the elementary grades of the boarding schools we could already introduce a schedule which would give the teacher time, after two or three lessons in Russian and arithmetic, to teach her pupils to see and observe and do a little useful work; the teacher could go for walks with them, take them to museums, exhibitions, factories and collective farms, encourage them to read, to sing and dance and draw and simply to speak well. That plan would give our pupils a full, rich childhood and help them to develop harmoniously.

For five years now our staff has been looking for a rational method of organizing the pupils' homework. By "packing" more into the morning hours and maintaining pedagogical control over the teachers' work, we have tried to free the late afternoon hours for other educational activities.

We have already succeeded in the primary grades and many other boarding schools in Moscow are now following much the same régime. We have carried out two similar experiments in the 5th and 6th grades, but so far have not been able to cope with the incredibly heavy programs, no matter what organizational schemes we have tried.

We have suggested our own curricular plan and it has been approved by the Moscow City Department of Education, which has asked the Ministry to give us a chance to test it in four boarding schools. The Ministry has not agreed to that, however, and has not approved our plan. Why?

The Education Minister of the RSFSR, Evgeny Afanasenko,

noted quite correctly in his recent article for the newspaper *Izvestia*: "Today when the school is reorganizing its work we must not under any circumstances countenance a drop in the level of general education." But water does not flow under a standing stone. We must try to move the stone. Why doesn't the Boarding School Department of the Ministry let us try our plan? We have made the life of our youngest pupils easier. All the more reason why we should continue the experiment. It is up to the Ministry to give mature and experienced collectives of teachers the right to break with tradition and undertake pedagogically justified experiments. Many boarding schools have earned that right by their good work over the past five years. They not only have the right; they have such a duty. How else can the new come into being?

There may be mistakes and slips, but the new school cannot be created if we keep looking back. Indecision does much more harm than innovation.

## NOTES

### **The New Soviet-American Relations Institute**

IN RESPONSE to the feelings expressed by numerous public figures and organizations an Institute of Soviet-American Relations has been established in Moscow. The event launching it was a public meeting held at the Friendship House on August 31, which reiterated the Soviet people's desire to live in peace and friendship with the people of the USA.

N. V. Popova, President of the Presidium of the Union of Soviet Societies for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, opened the meeting. The main report was delivered by N. N. Blokhin, President of the USSR Academy of Medical Sciences, who said that creation of the Institute proceeded from an awareness of "the great historic responsibility that devolves upon the peoples of our countries in preserving and consolidating universal peace.

"In the opinion of Soviet people a strong foundation exists on which a bridge of friendship and cooperation can be built by joint efforts to span the ocean and link our peoples to their mutual benefit. This foundation is peaceful coexistence of states with different social systems, a policy that has been the cornerstone of the Soviet Union's foreign policy since its inception."

The public of our two countries can and must play a great role in bringing the Soviet and American peoples closer together and setting up an atmosphere of goodwill and mutual trust, Blokhin stressed. Understanding each other's viewpoints and learning to know whatever may bring us closer together and help find a common language depends on the activity, energy and selflessness of public organizations and public figures in their effort to establish contacts. He said only new, constant efforts on the part of everyone can achieve this. He also called for everyone to work together for general and complete disarmament, for peace and friendship among peoples. And he emphasized the importance of joint action on the part of the broad public in this.

In conclusion Blokhin pointed out that the Institute did not spring up spontaneously out of nowhere. "We must not forget the

fine traditions of cooperation between the Soviet and American peoples during the years of World War II. The fact that we were guided by different ideologies was no obstacle then, and this difference cannot and must not hamper cooperation and friendship between our countries in peacetime."

The proposal to establish the Institute in the Soviet Union received warm support from such public figures as Dmitri Shostakovich, Secretary of the Presidium of the USSR Academy of Sciences K. Fyodorov, Deputy of the Supreme Soviet L. A. Zvaigznite, Hero of Socialist Labor V. A. Smirnov, Deputy Minister of Foreign Trade N. N. Smelyakov and A. S. Sadykov, Rector of Lenin Central Asian University.

The meeting elected the Institute board, with N. N. Blokhin as President and sixteen Vice-Presidents, among whom are Nina P. Khrushcheva, film director S. A. Gerasimov, Academician I. I. Artobolevsky and the Chairman of the State Committee of the USSR Council of Ministers for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries G. A. Zhukov.

Warm applause greeted a motion to adopt an appeal to public and cultural organizations, men of culture, science and the arts, representatives of the business world and all United States citizens to support cooperation between the USA and the USSR.

*(All papers, Sept. 1, 1961 — slightly abridged)*

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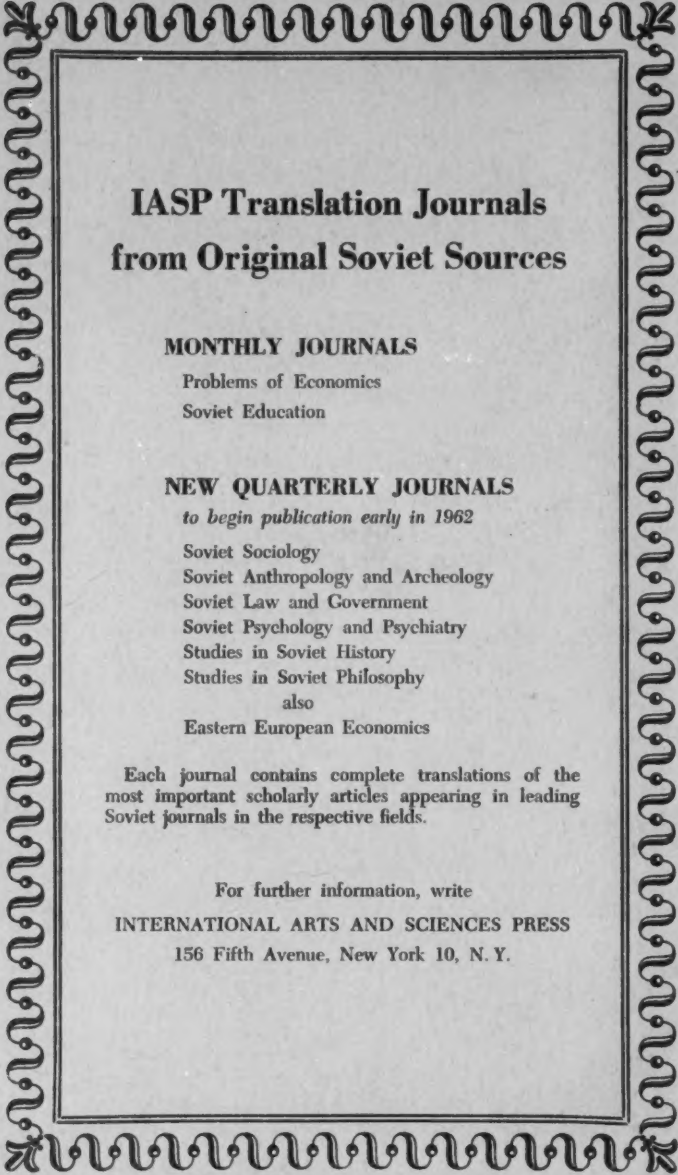
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